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The United States Cavalry Association

Organized November 9, 1885

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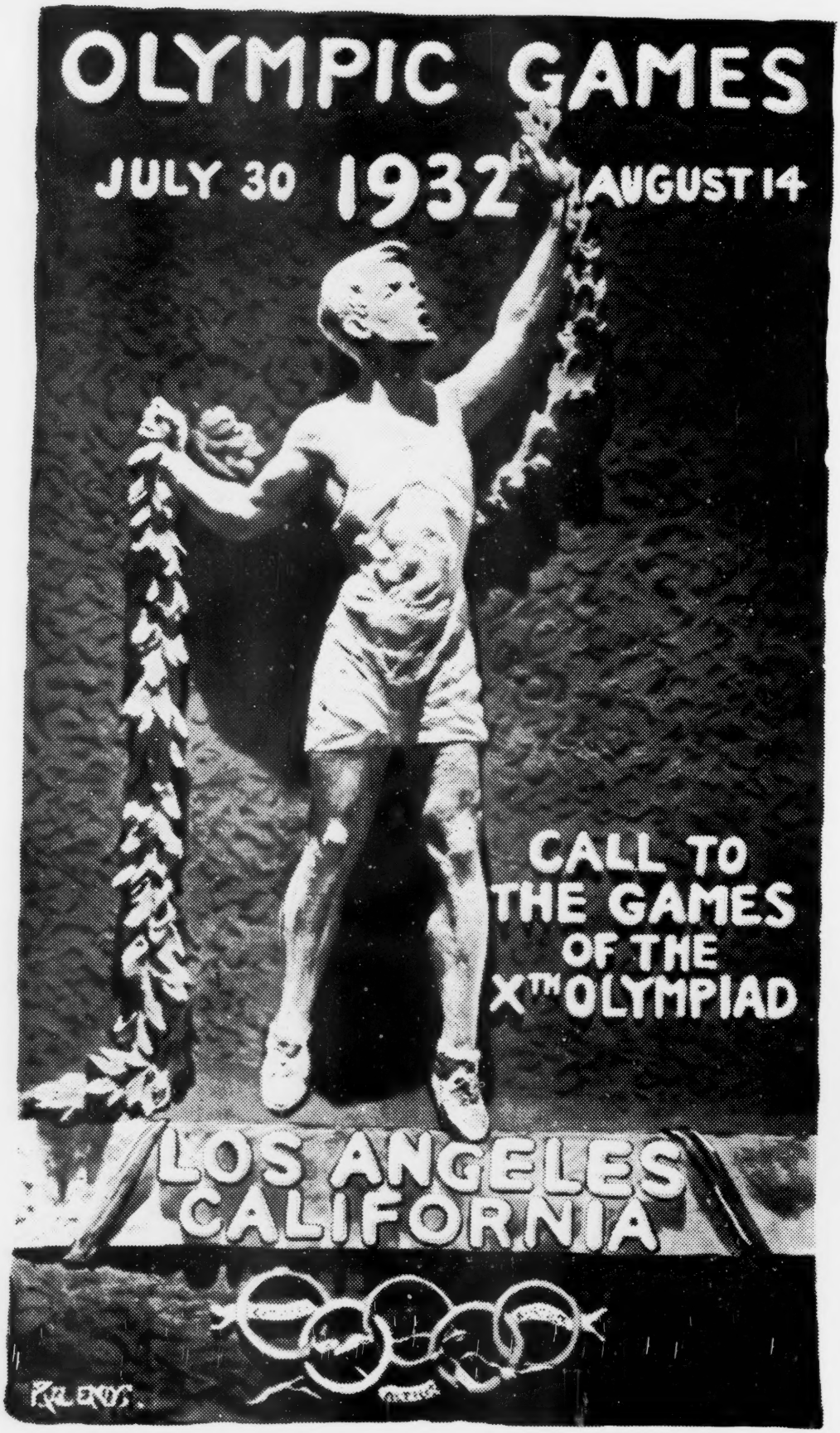

OLYMPIC GAMES
JULY 30 1932 AUGUST 14
CALL TO THE GAMES OF THE XTH OLYMPIAD
LOS ANGELES CALIFORNIA

The Organization of the 1932 Olympic Games and the Conduct of the Equestrian Sports

By Major W. M. Grimes, Cavalry

General

In view of the fact that the Games of the Xth Olympiad will be celebrated in Los Angeles, Calif., from July 30th to August 14th, 1932, it may be of interest to briefly outline the Olympic Organization, with special reference to the Equestrian sports and the part played by our *U. S. Cavalry Association*.

Before proceeding with the organization of the games, let us briefly outline the historical background.

Historical

The ancient Olympic Games, the origin of which is buried in obscurity, were celebrated at Olympia in Elis, a small plain west of Pisa.

The first historical fact connected with the Olympic Games is their revival by Iphitus, King of Elis. It is probable that during the Dorian invasion the celebration of the festival was discontinued, and it is said that Iphitus was commanded by the Delphic oracle to revive the Games as a remedy for the internal difficulties then besetting Greece.

Different dates are assigned by ancient writers, some placing the revival at 884 B. C., others at 828. The Olympiads were not employed as a chronological era until 776 B. C. The Olympic Games continued to be celebrated with much splendor under the Roman Emperors, and the festival was finally abolished in A. D.

MAJOR GENERAL GUY V. HENRY, CHIEF OF CAVALRY, U. S. A., ON "GRAY FALCON"

President, Fédération Equestre Internationale; President U. S. Cavalry Association; Member, American Olympic Committee; Chairman, 1932 Olympic Games Equestrian Committee; Chairman, 1932 Olympic Games Modern Pentathlon Committee; War Department Representative for Army Participation in 1932 Olympics.

394, in the sixteenth year of the reign of Emperor Theodosius.

The revival of the modern Olympic Games dates back to 1892, when at a meeting of the Union des Sports Athlétiques in France, Baron de Coubertin publicly proposed their revival. For a while, little interest was evidenced. However, in 1894, it was decided to revive the Olympic Games and the institution of the International Olympic Committee took place. To the ancient city of Athens fell the great honor of staging the modern revival, the first of the modern Games being held there in April, 1896; since then they have been celebrated every four years, with the exception of 1916.

Organization for 1932 Olympic Games

Organization for the Xth Olympiad consists of: International Olympic Committee; American Olympic Association; American Olympic Committee; various games committees of the several sports on the Olympic program; Organizing Committee, Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, California; International Federation of the various sports on the Olympic program; and National Federation of Sports on the Olympic program.

The functions of these various sub-divisions are briefly indicated below.

International Olympic Committee

This committee is permanent, elects itself and has from one to three members from each country elected for an indefinite time. The number of countries represented on the committee is unlimited.

The committee, in general, is charged with ensuring the regular celebration of the Olympiads and for their proper organization and conduct. It fixes the time and place for the celebration of each Olympiad. It entrusts the organization to the *National Olympic Committee* of the country in which the chosen town is situated. The country selected usually delegates the duties to a *special organizing committee* chosen by itself. In the case of the Xth Olympiad the International Olympic Committee entrusted the organization of the games to the American Olympic Committee, which, in turn, delegated its duties to a special organizing committee of Los Angeles.

American Olympic Association

The Association is maintained as a permanent organization through which expression can be given and action taken relative to the interests of the United States in Olympic Games.

The American Olympic Association directly, or through its members or committees, has jurisdiction over all matters pertaining to the participation of the United States in the Olympic Games and over the organization of the Olympic Games or any Olympiad celebrated in this country.

In general, membership is confined to organizations of this country taking some active part in the administration of one or more of the games or competitions upon the Olympic program and to such other organizations as further or tend to promote the participation in or preparation for an amateur sports or games competition.

American Olympic Committee

This committee is brought into being by the Executive Committee of the American Olympic Association. It consists of the Executive Committee of the American Olympic Association, plus Chairmen of Games Committees and Chairmen of such other Committees as have been created by the Executive Committee.

In general the committee is responsible for America's participation in the games and is charged with soliciting, collecting or receiving and handling funds.

Three Army officers are members of this committee:

Major General Guy V. Henry.

Major E. P. Denson, War Department General Staff.

Major W. C. Rose, War Department General Staff.

Olympic Games Committees

There is a Games Committee for each sport on the Olympic program. Each committee has the power to advise the American Olympic Committee on all matters relative to place, time and method of holding try-outs or other competitions for members of team of the competition or event upon the Olympic program for which it was appointed; of nominating for final appointment by the American Olympic Committee, the managers, coaches, trainers or other personnel of such team and of nominating to the American Olympic Committee the members of the team.

Equestrian Sports Committee

The Games Committee for the Equestrian Sport is known as the 1932 Olympic Games Equestrian Committee; its membership follows:

Major General Guy V. Henry, Chief of Cavalry, Chairman

Mr. Gustavus T. Kirby

Colonel Pierre Lorillard, Jr.

Mr. Alfred B. Maclay.

Lt. Colonel C. L. Scott, Secretary

Organizing Committee, Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, California

The organization of the games is entrusted to the Organizing Committee, Games of the Xth Olympiad, Los Angeles, Calif., U. S. A.,—this Committee is responsible for and controls the games and makes all the necessary arrangements.

The Los Angeles Organizing Committee looks to several international sport federations for technical advice and assistance in staging Olympic sports: insofar as the equestrian sports are concerned the Committee deals with the Fédération Equestre Internationale.

The International Equestrian Federation

Consists of a group of approximately 24 national equestrian associations that have joined together for the purpose of regulating the conduct of international equestrian events, horse shows, etc., in the several countries concerned. In the international horse world, the federation occupies a somewhat similar position to that occupied in this country by the Association of American Horse Shows, Inc. In addition to prescrib-

OLYMPIC STADIUM

In which Will be Held the Jumping Phase of the Three-Day Event and the Prix Des Nations.

ing rules and regulations for the conduct of international horse shows, it has general supervision over the Equestrian events of Olympic Games. This federation prepares the regulations for Olympic Equestrian events and appoints various juries and other officials.

Our Chief of Cavalry, Major General Guy V. Henry, is President of the International Equestrian Federation.

The U. S. Cavalry Association

The U. S. Cavalry Association is the national representative of the Fédération Equestre Internationale.

The U. S. Cavalry Association is responsible for the organization and conduct of the Equestrian events and gives such technical or other assistance it can render to the Organizing Committee in the preparation of the courses for the equestrian events.

In other words the actual staging of the Equestrian Sports is handled by the U. S. Cavalry Association; this includes such items as preparation of terrain, jumps, issuing instructions, etc., judges and all related matters.

Lieutenant Colonel John A. Barry, Cavalry, under the direction of the Chief of Cavalry represents the U. S. Cavalry Association in Los Angeles.

2d Lieutenant M. F. DeBarneville, QMC. Reserve, on duty at the American Embassy, Paris, represents the association in Europe.

1st Lieutenant R. M. Eichelsdoerfer, A.D.C. (Cav.) is acting as liaison officer with the foreign army teams upon their arrival at the port of New York.

The Xth Olympiad

The program will open in Olympic Stadium (coliseum) on Saturday afternoon, July 30, with the historic opening ceremony, a part of which will be the impressive parade of nations, in which 2,000 sons and daughters of 35 nations, led by their respective national flags, will participate in the march past the tribune of honor. One athlete will then step from the drawn up ranks to take the Olympic oath for all the teams of the participating nations. As the oath is administered the Olympic flag will be raised; the Olympic torch will blaze forth atop the massive peristyle of the stadium and in presence of representatives of foreign countries, world-wide Olympic organizations, and officials of state, the games of the Xth Olympiad will be declared officially opened. Many other beautiful features of pageantry will mark the opening ceremony.

Something of the magnitude of the program is suggested by the fact that, during the 16 days the games are in progress, more than 135 distinct programs of competitions from 15 branches of sports will be held mornings, afternoons and evenings at 9 or more stadiums, auditoriums or water courses. Competitions will be held in the following world-wide sports: track and field athletics, boxing, cycling, equestrian sports, fencing, field hockey, gymnastics, modern pentathlon, shooting, rowing, swimming, diving and water polo, weightlifting, wrestling, yachting, national demonstration, international demonstration, and fine arts.

The Equestrian Sports

The equestrian sports have the greatest appeal of all events on the Olympic programme, insofar as the Army is concerned; they are one of the two sports (*) in which all of the competitors come from the Army. To the horseman, civilian or military, Olympic equestrian sports are the most spectacular, colorful and greatest equestrian competition of their kind in the world.

There are three separate and distinct events, each representing an entirely different phase of equitation. First, there is a jumping event; second, schooling event and, lastly, an event that combines an endurance test with jumping and schooling. These exhibitions require, on the part of rider and horse, a degree of training, courage and skill that goes far beyond the demands of the horse show ring; only the equestrian equivalents of Tilden, Jones, and Ruth have sufficient knowledge, experience and capacity to participate.

The equestrian sports are scheduled for the period of August 10-14 inclusive.

Entries

Entries are individual and team. Team entries consist of three riders and three horses.

Each rider has the privilege of entering two horses in each event. The entering of the second (reserve) horse is optional. The horse to be ridden is designated 48 hours before the event begins.

All entries must meet the Olympic requirements as to eligibility, amateur standing, etc.

Officials—Judges—Regulations

The average horse enthusiast who views the equestrian sports will find much of interest in the judging; the events will be judged by international jurors. The nations participating in the games select the best qualified judges from the foremost horsemen of their respective countries. Their names are then submitted to the Fédération Equestre Internationale, and from these lists the necessary officials are selected.

Judging is in conformity with the general rules of the Fédération Equestre Internationale. Details of judging and scoring will be discussed separately under each event.

There are three separate and distinct sets of jurors and judges as follows:

1. The *Jury of Appeal* consists of from three to five jurors from five different countries selected by the Fédération Equestre Internationale. This jury settles controversial matters referred to it when a complaint in writing is made by one of the competitors against a decision of a ground judge. The Jury of Appeal at Los Angeles is composed of the following:

Major General Guy V. Henry, representing the United States.

Count Clarence Von Rosen, representing Sweden.

Commandant G. Hector, representing France.

2. The *Ground Jury* consists of three to five jurors selected by the Fédération Equestre Internationale, to judge each event, or one jury may judge all three events. This ground jury is solely responsible for judging the event or events. Countries will be represented on the ground juries in Los Angeles as follows:

Dressage	United States.
	France
	Sweden
Three Day	United States.
	Holland
	Sweden
Prix des Nations	United States.
	Poland
	Sweden

Lieutenant Colonel Sloan Doak, Cavalry, will be the ground juror to represent the United States in all three events.

3. *Judges at the Jumps* score faults, etc. There are approximately 45-50 minor officials that will be necessary for the proper staging of the equestrian events.

Likely Competitors

From information received to date, it is believed that the following countries will enter teams approximately as follows:

Nation	*Event*
United States	*Dressage*—Three Day—*Prix des Nations.*
Bulgaria	*Dressage.*
France*	*Dressage.*
Holland**	*Dressage*—Three Day—*Prix des Nations.*
Japan	*Dressage*—Three Day—*Prix des Nations.*
Poland†	*Prix des Nations.*
Sweden††	*Dressage*—Three Day—*Prix des Nations.*
Mexico	*Dressage*—Three Day—*Prix des Nations.*

The above list will in all probability be increased; several countries, while not definitely accepting, on the other hand have not positively declined.

Most of the foreign teams coming from Europe will land in New York on or about July 1st, shipping to Los Angeles as soon after arrival as practicable. One or many countries will probably ship direct to Los Angeles via the Panama Canal.

The first of the foreign equestrian teams to arrive was the team representing the Japanese Army; the advanced party arrived in California on May 11th.

Concours Individuel de Dressage

The first of the three equestrian events is the *Dressage*, a training or schooling event for high schooled horses. The *Dressage* will be held on August 10th in the Riviera Area of Los Angeles.

The event is designed to show the skill and ability of the rider in controlling his mount and the latter's obedience to the will of the rider. The rider shows his horse at all gaits, at two track, change of lead at

* The Modern Pentathlon is the other.

* 4th in *Dressage*, 1928 Games.
** 1st in *Three Day* and 3rd in *Dressage*, 1928.
† 2nd in *Prix des Nations*, 1928.
‡ 2nd in *Dressage*, 5th in *Three Day* and 3rd in *Prix des Nations*, 1928.

gallop, on the circle, on a straight line at each stride and the movements of the *passage, pirouette* and the *piaffer*.

This is the first time the horse loving public of America has had an opportunity of witnessing the gaits and airs of the *haute école* demonstrated by the leading exponents in America and Europe.

A word as to the *Dressage* as contained in the Olympic Equestrian Regulations:

"* * * The purpose of *Dressage* is to make the horse 'agreeable'; that is to say, keen but obedient. These characteristics are manifested by:

the freedom of the gaits;

the rhythm, the lightness and ease of the movements;

the rigorously straight position maintained during all the work.

The horse should give the impression of managing himself—of being on his own.

Confident and attentive, he generously gives himself to his rider. His walk is regular, free and extended, his trot is natural, free and rhythmic, his gallop is united, light and well balanced."

Judging and scoring the *Dressage* is technical and complicated. There are relatively few horsemen competent to judge and evaluate the many intricate movements.

The competitor is judged in conformity with the rules of the Fédération Equestre Internationale; in order to give the reader an idea of this event, there are listed a few of the more important provisions:

Movements are executed from memory and in the prescribed sequence. When a rider errs he is stopped and is told to resume with the correct movement. Time is not taken out in this course. For the first and second errors riders are penalized two and five points respectively. The third error is elimination.

Each rider is allowed 16 minutes in which to execute the prescribed movements. Time begins to count when the rider salutes the jury and moves forward and ends when the rider, after completing the movements, halts and salutes the jury. Failure to complete the test on time is penalized ½ point for each full second overtime. Each judge deducts the time penalties from the score of the rider concerned.

In movements prescribed to be executed at a certain point, the execution begins when the head and shoulders of the rider arrive on line with the point.

Riviera Country Club in the Vicinity of Which the Dressage and the Endurance and Schooling Phases of the Three-Day Event Will be held.

One of the top Dressage Horses, T.B., B.G. "Olympic." (Radius Rosa-Odette VI) 16-2½, 1226 lbs., 8 yrs. Owned by Capt. H. C. Tuttle, Q. M. C., now with team.

All movements are scored by each judge on a basis of from 0 to 10, regardless of the coefficient allotted to the movement.

After each rider's performance, the marks of the judges are examined; whenever a difference of four or more points exists among the judges' marks for the same movement, the judges are asked to explain their markings.

The classification of each rider is determined by each judge as follows:

The coefficient allotted each movement, or group of movements is multiplied by the mark for that movement or group of movements; each product shall then be divided by ten; the sum of these quotients determines the rider's standing.

Final classification is as follows:

At the conclusion of the *Dressage* each rider is classified in accordance with the score card of each judge; then each rider's several classifications are added and divided by ten. The winner is the rider with the least total; second place goes to the rider with the next smaller total, and so on. In case two or more totals are equal, resulting in a tie, the winner is the rider whose average work is the highest; second place goes to the rider whose average work is next highest, and so on.

In case of "ties" in the Individual *Dressage* Event, the Jury, has the riders execute certain specified movements.

In case of "ties" in team competitions, the team whose work is most homogeneous is placed first; that is, the team whose individual scores are the least separated.

Normally the arena is 60 meters by 20, (approximately 196 by 65 feet.)

There is no limitation as to weight.

The equipment for the *Dressage* is: flat saddle, snaffle, simple curb with curb chain, and lip strap if needed.

Martingales and artificial reining devices of what-

ever kind are prohibited. Horses are not allowed to wear boots or bandages.

Concours Complet d'Equitation
The Three-Day Event

The Three-Day Event comprises three distinct tests held on three successive days.

August 11—A training test, Riviera Country Club.

August 12—An endurance test, Riviera Country Club.

August 13—A jumping test, Olympic Stadium.

The maximum number of points in each test is:

Training test		400.
Endurance test	Route phase (roads or paths)	100.
	Cross-country phase	700.
	Steeplechase phase	500.
Jumping test		300.

From the foregoing it is seen that the Endurance Test counts a little more than three times the Training Test and four times the Jumping Test.

Prior to the Training and Jumping Test all horses are examined by an international commission composed of three members; the commission has the power to exclude from the event or from the last test horses which are unquestionably exhausted and horses which have become seriously lame, regardless of cause. All other horses continue and complete the event at the option of their riders. They are classified as to final standing, provided such horses have not been otherwise eliminated during the course of the event.

First Day: Training Test

The purpose is to prove the suppleness of the horse and his obedience to the aids of the rider (a horse responsive to the legs, light on the hands).

Each rider is allowed eleven minutes to perform successively a series of some forty prescribed movements. The marking and scoring follow the general procedure followed in the *Dressage*.

The score cards of the judges are arranged in such a manner as to total the 400 points allotted to the training test.

A rider failing to make a score of at least 150 points is disqualified from the remaining tests of the event, and such a rider is not classified in the final standing.

Second Day: Endurance Test

This test is to show the endurance of a good charger or hunter, when well trained and conditioned. Likewise, it is a test of the rider's knowledge of pace and of his control of the horse.

The endurance test is laid partly on roads or paths and includes a steeplechase course and a cross-country obstacle course. 2 hours, 5 minutes and 6 seconds are allowed for this 36 kilometer* (22½ mile) ride.

In principle, the different phases of this test are conducted in the following order:

a. On roads or paths, about seven kilometers, at the rate of 240 meters per minute or, in other words, if completed in 29 minutes, 10 seconds, there is no penalty.

b. Steeplechase of about 4,000 meters, at the rate of 600 meters per minute. No penalty if completed in 6 minutes, 40 seconds.

c. On roads or paths, about 15 kilometers, at the rate of 240 meters per minute. Or, if completed in 1 hour, 2 minutes, 30 seconds, there is no penalty.

d. Cross-country, over 30 to 35 obstacles, about 8,000 meters at the rate of 450 meters per minute. No penalty if completed in 17 minutes, 46 seconds.

e. On the flat, 2,000 meters, to be covered at the gallop, at the rate of 333 meters per minute. No penalty if completed in 6 minutes.

Two minutes are allowed at the finish of the route phase (7 kilometers) to permit riders to proceed to the starting point of the steeplechase.

One minute is similarly allowed at the finish of the steeplechase to permit riders to proceed to the starting point of the 15 kilometer route phase.

These minutes begin to count the instant the horse passes the respective finishing points.

The cross-country phase is normally shown to the competitors on foot the day preceding the endurance test.

In the cross-country phase 30-35 obstacles must be jumped. The obstacles are natural ones, such as hedges, ditches ,farm gates, brooks, streams, road crossings, etc. Obstacles of height shall have a maximum height of 1 meter 15, those of width, a maximum width of 4 meters.

Each phase of the endurance test is scored upon the *time* consumed and upon the *faults* committed at the obstacles. *Overtime* is penalized at the rate of 2½ points for each 5 seconds overtime in the route phase (roads, paths, on the flat); in the steeplechase phase there is a 12½ point penalty and in the cross-country phase there is a 17½ point penalty. *Undertime* on the steeplechase is rewarded respectively 2 points for each 5 seconds up to 50 seconds; and 2 points for each 10 seconds up to 14 minutes and 6 seconds in the cross-country phase.

The unit of measure for determining the penalties and the bonuses is 5 seconds, except in the cross-country where bonuses are warded on ten full seconds. Fractional parts of 5 seconds are disregarded.

The following scale of faults is used in scoring at the obstacles

	Steeplechase	*Cross-country*
A. First refusal or run out.	25 points	35 points
B. Second refusal, or run-out, at the same obstacle	50 points	70 points
C. Fall of horse at an obstacle	50 points	70 points
D. Fall of only the rider at an obstacle	100 points	140 points
E. Third refusal, or run out, at the same obstacle	Elimination	Elimination

Defenses on the part of the horse, circling, trotting, errors in the course, if corrected, are not entered on the score. Such faults are automatically penalized by the time element.

* Kilometer equals 1000 meters, about ⅝ mile.

Failure to take an obstacle, or to pass on the prescribed side of a guide flag, entails elimination.

Third Day: Jumping Test

The last phase of the Three-Day Event is the Olympic Stadium Jumping Contest, on August 13.

The course is approximately 700-800 meters long, taken at the gallop, at a speed of 375 meters per minute. There is an overtime penalty of ¼ of a point per second; there is no credit for faster time.

There are 12 obstacles, with a minimum height of 1 meter 10 and a maximum of 1 meter 15. The width of bar and ditch will not exceed 2 meters; the water jump will not exceed 3 meters 50. In general, the obstacles are patterned after natural fences encountered in cross-country riding. Specifications for obstacles include an in-and-out, a 3 meter 50 ditch and four obstacles exactly 1 meter 15 high. The remaining obstacles are left to the discretion of the organizers.

In this event faults are scored as follows:

	Penalty
A. First disobedience*	15 points
B. Knockdown with front or hind feet	20 points
C. In water of brook with front or hind feet	20 points
D. Second disobedience	30 points
E. Fall of horse and of rider	30 points
F. Fall of rider only	60 points
G. Third disobedience on the course, failure to jump an obstacle in its proper order, failure to keep course, unless rectified	Elimination

Herewith are pertinent extracts from applicable rules of the Fédération Equestre Internationale for Olympic Jumping Contests. American Horse Show followers will note many differences between the international rules and those used by our own horse shows.

Touches, tips or displacements which do not affect the height of obstacles are not counted.

When an obstacle is composed of several elements in the same vertical plane, a knockdown of the top element is the only one penalized.

The term *disobedience* includes:

Refusal, accompanied or not by disturbing the obstacle so that it must be reset.

Runout.

Defense.

Circling in any part of the course for any reason except to retake the course.

Refusal, stopping at an obstacle to be jumped, whether or not a knock down occurs.

Stopping at an obstacle, without a knockdown and followed immediately by a standing jump, is not penalized.

If a horse, having knocked down an obstacle in stopping or sliding, takes that obstacle without backing or retaking the track, he is penalized by a disobedience plus four points for the knockdown.

If he backs or retakes the track, a refusal is scored, and he must await the resetting of the obstacle before resuming the course, under penalty of disqualification.

If an obstacle has not been reset by the time the rider is again ready to resume the course, he must halt, and, during this time, the special chronometer is started. The signal to resume the course is then given by a bell. The time between starting the chronometer and the signal bell is deducted from the contestant's time for the course. The same procedure is followed when an obstacle must be reset to be jumped a second time. If the rider continues the course without stopping he is eliminated.

Runout.

An evasion of the obstacle to be jumped.

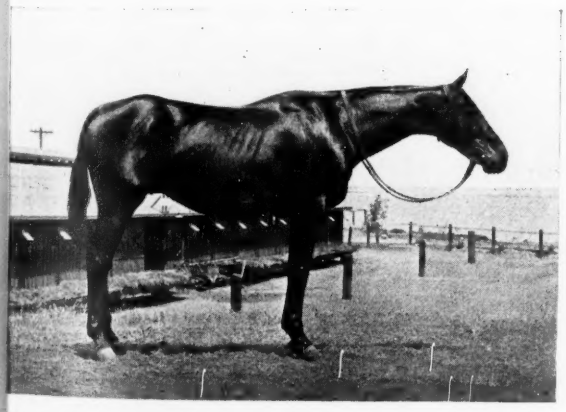
Jumping the obstacle outside of the flags or other limiting markers.

A knockdown, by either horse or rider, of a flag, a wing or other appurtenance of the obstacle.

The rider must return to the obstacle and, if it has been knocked down, must wait until it has been reset, under penalty of elimination. The time taken to reset the obstacle is recorded and deducted as in the case of a refusal accompanied by a knockdown.

Joe Aleshire (½ TB, ½ Saddle-bred—16-1, 1200 lbs., 12 yrs.) a top Prix Des Nations horse. Capt. W. B. Bradford, Cav., up. Fence, 5 ft. 6 in.

* *Disobedience.* "A refusal, a run-out, a circle on the course, regardless of where and why made except to correct a run-out, a refusal which so displaces an obstacle that it has to be replaced."



Fine type of Three-Day Horse. T.B., B.G. "Pleasant Smiles" (Transvaal-Bread Winner) 16-1, 1150 lbs., 8 yrs.

Defense.

Any action, (stopping, backing, rearing, etc.) by which a horse seeks to avoid forward movement.

A horse has fallen when the shoulder and haunch on the same side have touched the ground, or the obstacle and the ground.

The fall of a horse or rider at an obstacle is added to the fault committed.

After a fall or any other accident a horse brought to the rider is not eliminated if the course is retaken at the exact point of the accident, and the aid received by the rider is not penalized.

Time is recorded to fifths of a second.

A horse continuing a defense for one minute at the start or during a round is eliminated.

Concours de Sauts d'Obstacles
Prix des Nations

The *Prix des Nations* is a jumping competition and will be held in the Olympic Stadium on the morning of the last day of the games, August 14.

The course for this event has approximately a length of 1050 meters, dependent somewhat on size of the stadium; the speed required is 400 meters per minute with 165 pounds up. There is an overtime penalty of ¼ of a point per second; there is no credit for a faster rate.

There will be at least 12 obstacles, requiring each contestant to take from 16-20 jumps; obstacles will have a minimum height of 1 meter 30 (4′ 3″) and a maximum height of 1 meter 50 (5′ 3″); two at least must be the maximum height, 1 meter 60. Water jumps will have a spread of 4 meters (13′ 1½″), over water, which, with the hedge in front thereof, gives a maximum width of 5 meters (16′ 4½″). *Obstacles de volée* (of breadth) will be 1 meter 50 to 2 meters wide. All jumps are patterned after natural fences encountered in cross-country riding.

The classification in the *individual* competition is determined by totalling the points of each rider; in the *team* competition classification it is determined by totalling the points of the three riders of each team.

A tie in either the *individual* or *team* competition is decided by a jump off over six obstacles of 1 meter 40 (4′ 7½″) to 1 meter 70 high, *obstacles de volée* being separated by 1 meter 60 to 2 meters 20. In the "jump off" time is not a factor unless a further tie shall result, in which case those tied are classified according to their time.

The details of scoring penalties, etc., are similar to those prescribed for the jumping phase of the Three-Day Event.

1932 United States Army Olympic Equestrian Team

THE 1932 United States Army Olympic Equestrian Team, now in training at Fort Rosecrans, California, consists of the following:

Manager

Lieutenant Colonel Charles L. Scott, Cav.

Team Veterinarian

Captain James E. Noonan, V. C.

Dressage

Major Harry D. Chamberlin, Cav.
Captain Hiram E. Tuttle, Q. M. C.
Captain Isaac L. Kitts, F. A.
Sergeant Alvin Moore, Engineers.

Three Day Team

Captain Edwin Y. Argo, F. A.
1st Lieutenant Earl F. Thomson, Cav.
1st Lieutenant Le Roy J. Stewart, F. A.
Captain John T. Cole, Cav.
Captain Fred W. Koester, Cav.
Major Arthur P. Thayer, Cav.

Prix des Nations

Captain William B. Bradford, Cav.
1st Lieutenant Carl W. A. Raguse, Cav.
1st Lieutenant John W. Wofford, Cav.
2nd Lieutenant Raymond W. Curtis, Cav.
1st Lieutenant Peter C. Hains, III, Cav.

Our Horses

THE noted newspaper correspondent, Frederic William Wile, Major MI-Res and also head of the Frederic William Wile News Service, made the following comments regarding Cavalry in his "Washington Observations" in the *Washington Evening Star*, May 30, 1932:

"Over in the War Department is a memorial tablet erected under Gen. Pershing's direction in honor of the horses which fell in France. Despite increasing use of mechanized cavalry, the horse has by no means galloped out of the military picture. A fervid believer in the four-footed hero's indispensability is Maj. Gen. Guy V. Henry, Chief of Cavalry, U. S. A., and one of the Army's most expert saddlemen. Although it does not compare numerically with most foreign establishments, Uncle Sam has today what is undoubtedly the most efficient Cavalry of any army in the world. It has attained that eminence amid recurring congressional vicissitudes. * * * Military authorities remain convinced that in future wars 'combination cavalry' (mechanized and horse) will serve vital purposes—each with its mission and its limitations and operating separately to obtain its maximum efficiency."

Today's Conclusions

After Seven Years With the Army Horse Show Team

By Captain W. B. Bradford, Cavalry

ARMY horsemen owe a deep debt of gratitude to civilian horse shows for the assistance they have given in the development of our equestrian teams. They have furnished both the incentive and the material aid which have enabled us to rise from a condition of inferiority to one of very definite superiority, among our countrymen and in our own country.

However, in recent years, all international competition, except in America and the British Empire, has undergone a great change. The International Equestrian Federation has grown in power and now regulates such competitions absolutely. It controls even the Olympic Games. Due to its influence, the great majority of international shows have adopted conditions, courses and obstacles of a type utterly different from those found in any American show. Consequently, we find that our horses, wonderfully successful under New York and Boston conditions, are often of little value in other international contests.

In this connection the experience of the Italian Team in New York in 1929 is very interesting. Previously in Europe, this team had been almost unbeatable. Arriving in New York, they found their horses entirely unaccustomed to the very special and artificial conditions of the National Horse Show and failed to win even a single international class.

Briefly, our shows differ from International Federation shows as follows: our ring is a small affair about 30 or 40 yards wide by 80 to 100 long. This is generally so, whether indoors or out of doors. The typical jumping course consists of two jumps on each side of the ring. The contestant enters and passes around twice on the right hand. Occasionally there is a figure of eight course copied from London. But London itself is far behind the times. A horse takes this same course many times during a show, and, if he then goes to a different community, he finds exactly the same thing and the same jumps. He rapidly develops habits that are undesirable and bad.

The European arena is a tremendous affair, 200 to 300 meters wide and 300 to 500 meters long. It contains many natural features and always several different bank, ditch and water jumps. It is usually out of doors and turfed over. *There are no typical jumping courses. The obstacles, courses and conditions all vary for every class.* Obstacles are usually numbered consecutively, and the rider follows his course as he would across country. He never sees the course, or knows it, until the time for competing arrives. The number of obstacles in a class vary from 10 to 25 or 30 and the distance from ¼ mile to 1¾ miles. There is generally a time element requiring a gallop of 16 to 18 miles per hour. The courses are planned so as to encourage the development of courageous galloping horses and bold, fearless riders. There is a thrill for both contestant and spectator during every moment, and interest in always intense.

How different from our own shows, where horses and riders become routined! One soon tires of seeing them go round and round, over the same old jumps, in class after class, whether the show is in New York or California. Perhaps this can be called sport, but it is certainly not a very interesting one.

With such a vast basic difference existing between our methods and others, one can easily see that we must seek a more satisfactory medium for developing

1. **Posen. A Portion of the New Arena at Posen. Not more than one-third on the Arena is shown. Note the Pond, a Difficult Obstacle When Combined with Other Jumps. 2. Warsaw. A Small Section of the Picturesque Stadium. The Trees add to the Beauty as well as to the Difficulty of the Course. The Bank, Ditch, and Water Jumps do not shown in this Picture.**

international equestrian material. Furthermore, I believe that it will be increasingly difficult for the very shows themselves to exist, unless there is a radical change in their character. The many of our best amateur civilian show riders who have deserted the ring for the more alluring point to point and steeplechase give proof of this.

As for Army riding, if we are to make further improvement, we must forget our riding halls and the poor old Olympia (not Olympic) figure of-eight course, which has been jumped and hounded to death. We must seek something more thrilling and varied than the old familiar brush, gate, post and rail courses, "twice around the outside." We must have many times the space that is generally available in an indoor ring, or the usual outdoor affair, so that we may develop our galloping horses and also ourselves. Then will come the thrills and excitement that will change this riding into a real sport.

Europe is leading the way, under the auspices of the International Equestrian Federation. Olympia in London, and the great Dublin show as well, have now become members of this International Federation, whose rules are most strict and whose tendency is ever towards the sporting type of event I have just been eulogizing. Now New York, Boston and Toronto are entering the fold of the Federation. Beginning this fall, complete new regulations and conditions will govern their international classes.

But, unfortunately, these shows are indoors and necessarily limited as to the changes they will be able to make.

Because of these prevailing out-of-date conditions, those responsible for the selection of horses and riders for the Olympic Games—where unknown courses and unfamiliar conditions will be encountered—are now faced with a serious problem. Certainly, they can determine the horses and riders who are consistently best over our own training courses, or our own training ground. But will these same combinations also be the best in the Games? We have no way of telling. One might say, what of the horses that did so well in New York last year? But, as I have tried to explain before, we cannot go by results at New York, because conditions there are totally dissimilar from what we must expect elsewhere. Our best indoor horses are not the best outside.

Your Frenchman or Italian is not faced with this problem. For the past few years, he has been trying out his Olympic prospects for the three equestrian contests at all the greatest shows of Europe, shows where conditions approximate those prescribed for the Games. He *knows* what his jumper will do when faced with a course such as he is bound to meet in Los Angeles. The three-day man and the high schooler also *know,* from many actual tests, just what to expect from their mounts.

Our American Team can only *guess.* For example, one of our best horses in practice at San Diego is *Ansonia.* Last year in our Association Horse Shows, he was the poorest. *Suzanne,* an outstanding horse at New York, Boston, and Toronto, cannot even be considered for the Olympics. One must surely see that the situation for us is always very difficult. Can there be any solution? I have studied the matter a great deal, these past few years, and believe that there is an answer.

We know that our present shows are inadequate. We know that there is little hope of getting them to initiate a change.* Why then depend on them any longer for guidance? Why not form our own association and lead where formerly we have been led? From the ground up, we must build and carefully encourage the riding and the horses that we need, thus contributing not only to keen enjoyment of the sport, but even more to our success as international horsemen.

More specifically, I propose the creation of two military associations; one in the middle west, to include Fort Bliss, Fort Sill, Fort Leavenworth and Fort Riley; a second in the east to include West Point, Fort Hamilton, Fort Myer, Fort Oglethorpe, and Fort Benning. Each association should stage three or four consecutive shows a year, preferably in the spring. Using the Middle Western Circuit as an example, a show would be held at Fort Leavenworth from April 29th to May 2nd inclusive; at Fort Riley from May 6th to 10th; Fort Sill May 14th to 17th; Fort Bliss May 24th to 29th.

There should always be an admission charge and entry fees. Prizes should be simple and inexpensive—perhaps a copper plaque. Expenses must be curtailed. Net receipts from the four shows should be placed in a general fund and guarantee the freight or express shipment charge of horses and automobile travelling expenses of officers and grooms. After these expenses are paid, any sum remaining should revert to each of the four shows in proportion to the amount subscribed.

There should be teams of 4 to 5 officers and 7 jumpers, 3 three-day horses and 1 *dressage* horse from each post in the association. Restricting teams to 11 horses would permit combined express shipments if desired. Traveling expenses for these teams would be guaranteed by the general fund insofar as possible. Teams would assemble at each of the four shows in turn, where they would compete with each other, and also with all the local military and civilian horses that could be encouraged to enter.

The arena selected for each show should be not less than 200 meters wide by 300 meters long out of doors, with some natural terrain obstacles. Each arena should differ from the other three as far as possible and should be patterned after those of Europe, such as that of Rome, Aachen, Warsaw, Nice, or Lucerne! (The shows of England and Ireland are not the type contemplated by the International Federation). The grounds should contain several types of water, ditch and bank obstacles, as well as built-up jumps, and combinations of all. *The course and obstacles should vary for each class so that rider and horse would never know exactly what might confront them.* Courses should be

* NOTE: A single exception to this is the class known as the "Melbrook Bowl" at Bryn Mawr, generously sponsored by Mr. J. Brooks B. Parker of Philadelphia as his part in assisting to solve the problem of Army riders.

from 500 meters up to 1200 or more and obstacles number from 10 to 24. Time should always be an element. The metric system of measurement should be used, to conform to international custom. Tips should not be counted. Contestants should never be allowed to practice in the arena.

Each program should contain both *Local Classes*, and *Open Classes*. The *Local Classes* should be framed to meet local needs and might be for children, for green horses, polo ponies, local horses, civilians, or whatever seems needed. Military teams, transported at Association expense, should be excluded from *Local Classes*. The *Open Classes* should be for official military teams, and also for any other competitor, military or civilian, who might pay the entry fee.

The *Local Jumping Classes* should be patterned exactly after the International plan, though the obstacles would naturally be quite small.

The *Open Jumping Classes* should be for various height, spread, rate, and distance conditions. There should be jumping and schooling classes limited to three-day horses and also a *dressage* class. The three-day horses should have the complete three-day test at the last show on the circuit and perhaps a preliminary short test at the first.

The programmes should show the plan or trace of the course for each open jumping class, and the number and maximum heights of obstacles, maximum spread, rate of gallop, and total distance.

A system of handicapping should be inaugurated to encourage the presentation of young and new horses and to prevent the older ones from winning year after year. Horses of the Army Team should be handicapped at once. Winners recorded each year should be added to this list, so as to constantly make way for new blood. Handicapping is accomplished either by raising certain specified jumps 10 centimeters for each handicap classification or by adding from 4 to 8 jumps to the given course. Handicapping should not be employed in courses exceeding 1 meter 40, or in *Prix des Nations* (team) classes.

A program for the *Open Classes* of a show might be planned as follows:

Class I—Open Jumping.
18 obstacles. Maximum height 1 m., 30. Maximum spread 4 m. Rate 400 m. Distance 900 m.

Class II—Open High Jumping.
12 obstacles, 1 m., 40 to 1 m. 60. Maximum spread 5 m. Rate 300 m. Distance 600 m. Jump-off will be decided by raising jumps. Time will not count unless the rate falls below that prescribed. No handicaps.

Class III—Open *Dressage* Contest.
Olympic conditions to govern.

Training Ground of the Army Olympic Team at San Diego. There are 5 Water Jumps, 6 Ditch Jumps and 3 Banks that are used separately or in Combination, with Gates, Hedges, Walls, Post and Rails, Triple Bars, etc.,

Class IV—Open Three-Day Jumping.
Horses that do not compete in the final complete three day test will be disqualified.
12 obstacles. Maximum height 1 m. 15. Maximum spread 3 m. 50. Rate 375 m. Distance 1000 m.

Class V—Open Double Class.
Each rider to mount two horses. Scores to be added.
15 obstacles about 1 m. 30. Maximum spread 4 m. Rate 375 m. Distance 700 m.

Class VI—Open Three-Day Schooling.
Olympic standards to govern. Horses disqualified unless shown in final complete three-day test.

Class VII—Open Team Class.
For teams of three riders.
Olympic standards to govern. No handicap.

Class VIII—Open Jumping.
17 obstacles. Maximum height 1 m. 40. Maximum spread 4 m. 50. Rate 375 m. Distance 800 m.

Class IX—Open Consolation Jumping.
Ribbon winners of previous classes barred.
15 obstacles. Maximum height 1 m. 30. Maximum spread 3 m. 50. Rate 400 m.
Distance 750 m. Post entries.

A circuit of shows thus conducted would be interesting, popular and instructive for all concerned. It would be our best American school for international competition and would tend to develop horses and riders better by far than any we now possess. Were such a system now in operation, the problem of our Olympic Team would be vastly simplified. Spring training completed, we would tour this Mid-Western Circuit. With the results from these shows to go by, horses and riders could be definitely selected. Their training and conditioning would be completed and we could send them confidently into the ring at Los Angeles fully aware not only of what they *can do*, but knowing also what they *probably will do* when faced by the supreme test of Olympic competition.

Mr. Calvin P. Godfrey, Hotel Monticello, Toledo, Ohio, desires to obtain a copy of the July, 1927, CAVALRY JOURNAL, containing an article by his brother, Brigadier General E. S. Godfrey, entitled, "Some Reminiscences."

Rapid Forced Marches by Cavalry

By Lieutenant Colonel Charles L. Scott, Cavalry

THE following questions appear to me to be worthy of considerable study by all cavalry officers:

First—Why is there a need in future warfare for more cavalry mobility and marching speed?

Second—What effect do modern road conditions have on strategical mobility and marching speed of cavalry?

Third—What are some of the available means that make for longer and faster marches for cavalry?

Fourth—What are some of the specific methods to be followed by cavalry in long, fast marches?

Need for Increased Mobility and Long, Fast Marches

Horse cavalry of the future must operate with mechanized forces and also against them—to be able to move out rapidly ahead of its own mechanized units or to follow rapidly in support of them; to move rapidly considerable distance to defiles, river crossings and on interior lines in opposition to hostile mechanized or motor transported units will certainly be an important function of horse cavalry in the future.

It is also well to realize that aviation and armored cars will give definite information of the location and movements of hostile forces which cavalry is to oppose much earlier than such information has been obtained in past wars. To take the best advantage of these new means of securing early and definite information cavalry should move distances up to at least 100 miles much faster than ever before.

Modern Roads and Other Means Favor Faster and Longer Marches

It is believed that the following means enable horse cavalry to greatly increase both its strategical radius of action and its mobility:

a. Improved roads;
b. Supply by truck;
c. Better bred horses;
d. Assistance rendered in reconnaissance by aviation and armored cars;
e. Phillips Pack Saddle.

Roads. Read accounts of cavalry marches made during the Civil War. Note the difficulty that was encountered over poor roads, at stream crossings and steep grades. All of which reduced the rate of march, the distances marched and made supply most difficult. With similar men and horses, supplied by truck and moving over modern roads any cavalryman today could march farther and faster. The increased speed and distances that can be negotiated today over existing good roads, as compared to what could be done 25 years ago, was brought forcibly to my attention last fall when visiting my home in South Alabama. I found that hard times had driven many farmers out of automobiles, for which they could not buy tires or gasoline, back into the saddle and the buggy. They all told me, and experiment showed me, that on the good roads available 50% more speed and longer distances than were possible over poor roads were easily obtained under saddle or in a buggy. The ruts, the roots, the stumps, bad stream crossings, steep grades, etc., which slowed up and took so much out of a horse being ridden or driven, had been eliminated. No difficulty is experienced because of hard roads, and everyone prefers hard roads to bad going. Of course, no comment is necessary as to value of supply by truck as a means for increasing cavalry mobility.

Better bred horses. Anyone that has used an ill-bred coarse clumsy horse on a march or any long ride and has been fortunate enough to then use a well-bred one knows by experience that the well-bred horse is superior in every way to the scrub. For the first time in its history, our cavalry has a large percentage of half-breds in ranks and very soon—thanks to our Remount breeding policy—all our cavalry will be mounted on half-breds or better. These well-bred horses furnish us the means to radically change our marching methods, both as to speed and distances, in case of necessity. Furthermore, the best method to preserve and care for them on an ordinary march is to move at a good rate of march into the next camp, where the weight can be taken off their backs.

Armored Cars and Aviation. Marches in the presence of the enemy and to proper contact with the main body of an opposing force have in the past proven exceedingly difficult and extremely trying on horse flesh. The strength of many cavalry commands has been frittered away or severely taxed by distant patrolling. Many marches in the wrong direction and countermarches are on record. Because of the lack of definite information as to the location of the main strength of the enemy, marches have necessarily been slow and cautious. Armored cars and aviation covering and observing all roads will in the future locate very definitely hostile forces of any size and quickly report any large movement. In future cavalry, assisted as it should be by these two agencies—armored cars and aviation—will only need to patrol distances not in excess of 5 or 10 miles for local protection and can proceed with determination and speed to its objective with its fighting strength unimpaired by distant patrolling and useless marching.

Phillips Pack Saddle. Though mentioned last as a means for making longer and faster marches this saddle is far from being the least important. It supplies

a long felt need in the cavalry for a means to carry its vital firepower on a long fast march in such a way that a pack horse can keep up with and at no time slow down the riding horse. This pack saddle in reality greatly aids to justify the existence of our cavalry today and to make it what it is, i. e., the most effective and reliable mobile fighting force on the battlefield that it is possible to devise. We can continue to talk and theorize for years to come about cross country vehicles and devices, but, when it comes to moving firepower across country into action—pulling it out of action—handling it quickly, effectively and at will, there is nothing in sight that will surpass the horse.

Specific Methods for Faster Marches

For detailed and specific methods to be followed in making a long fast march, I refer those who are interested to the report of a 100 mile forced march made in 23 hours at the Cavalry School in April, 1931, by a provisional Cavalry Squadron. This report is printed in Vol. VI, No. 1, Cavalry School Mailing List and is too voluminous to include herein, but I briefly note some of the most important lessons learned and proven in this remarkable march.

First. That a 9-mile trot is practicable for the ordinary cavalry horse over long distances; that pack horses can maintain this gait also. Such rate of trotting covers ground more rapidly than an 8-mile trot, is a better posting trot, is the natural gait for the average riding horse. It prevents backing and filling in the column and does not tire either horse or rider as much as the 8-mile trot. A horse can still make this rate of trot with ease after having gone a long distance, if he is in shape to trot at all.

Second. Properly selected and trained pack horses can carry any known cavalry pack and keep up with the riding horse on a long, fast forced march without showing any more, if as much, fatigue as the riding horse.

Third. Frequent changes of gaits, i. e., short trots, short walks, and repeat are essential to make speed over long distances and *at the same time* preserve the horse and rider. This, in my opinion, is *the most important of all methods* for covering long distances rapidly. I will comment further on this subject below.

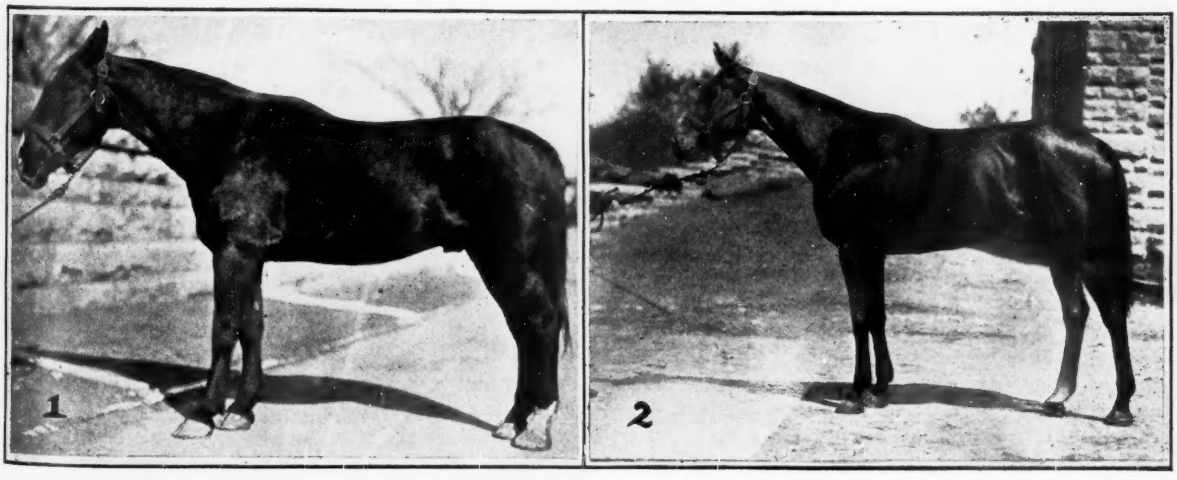
Fourth. Trotting on paved roads is much preferable to trotting on heavy or uneven going and will not tire or injure a properly shod and conditioned horse.

Fifth. Trots up steep hills—up long grades—tire and exhaust a horse very quickly for the reason that they put a strain on his heart, lungs, loins and hind legs. Trots *down grade* are much preferable to trots *up grade*, as in such case undue work is only put on one part of the horse's anatomy i. e., his front legs.

Sixth. On long fast marches the loins of the horse are usually the part which first shows the strain of carrying weight at speed. It is essential therefore to relieve all undue strain on the loins whenever possible. For example, don't strain them by trotting up grade; lead up steep hills; lean forward in posting; and don't pound the saddle. Stay up with your horse (in balance with him) *at the walk* instead of bowing the back, slouching and riding on the loins. When a horse's loins tire, he shows it by wabbling behind at a walk. It is then necessary to dismount and lead until the loins get a long rest.

Seventh. When leading (as should be done for at least five minutes every hour), leave the rifle in the boot if danger from an enemy is improbable and make the rider walk out at *four* miles per hour. This procedure does not slow up the rate of march and the fast walk takes the soreness out of the rider, limbers and wakens him up much better than dragging along with a rifle on his shoulder at a rate of 2½ or 3 miles per hour.

All these points were definitely proven of great value on the 100 mile forced march at the Cavalry School last year in which 209 riders and 259 horses of all shapes, sizes, types, and ages participated. I have



1. "Dixie Long", Pack Horse of 13th Cavalry. This Horse Carried a 37 mm Gun Weighing 223 Lbs. on a 100 Mile Forced March in 23 Hrs. and Finished in Excellent Condition. He was 17 Years Old, 15-2½ High. He Weighed 1080 Lbs. at the Start and 1090 Lbs. 24 Hours After the March. Nothing Much to Look at—Shows Signs of Hard Service—But Still a Grand, Game Old Horse. 2. Mare "Frills." Picture Taken the Day After Completion of 100 Mile Forced March. This Mare is Now on Three-Day Team and Promises to be One of Our Best Entries in the Equestrian Events of 1932.

proven these methods to my own satisfaction on numerous long fast rides and I am certain that they will be sustained and amplified by the forced march of a cavalry brigade which will take place this month at the Cavalry School.

Importance of Frequent Changes of Gaits

I do not believe it possible to stress too strongly the necessity for frequent changes of gait. Long trots quickly tire the horse and also the rider—long gallops are of course much harder on the horse. A good brisk trot (or even a gallop) *for a short period*, followed by a *short walk*, enables a horse to make distance rapidly for hours—for mile after mile. The short walk repeated frequently enables the horse to catch his breath, relax and rest. Just a few seconds of the walk help immensely. In fact, to realize this, you only have to try running a distance on foot. When you begin to feel the strain of running, come to the walk for 10 or 15 steps and see how it helps you. It is the same for a horse.

Examples of Value of Frequent Changes of Gaits

In support of the value of frequent changes of gaits, I cite the following:

a. In a maneuver at the Cavalry School in 1930, before the frequent changes of gait were stressed, I saw a student in command of a regiment of cavalry move this command six miles at a continuous trot at the rate of 8 miles per hour. The day was not hot, but this long continued trot up and down hill took a great deal out of horses and men. It resulted in a justified protest from the regular regimental commander.

b. The next year, 1931, I saw a student in command of the same regiment, with a battery of Field Artillery attached, do 14½ miles in 1½ hours on a very hot sultry day without in any way affecting a single horse in the command. How was it done?

The problem in which this command participated was a pursuit, in which an infantry division had to be intercepted at a river crossing about 15 miles distant. This Cavalry command first withdrew from action and galloped 2 miles across a zone swept by distant machine gun fire. Upon reaching cover, it walked 5 minutes to rest and cool out the horses. The march to its objective was then taken up at a rate of 7½ miles per hour on the following schedule—trot 7 minutes at 9 miles per hour—walk three minutes—repeat. Reports from aviation on the progress of the infantry division showed this rate of march of the Cavalry was not fast enough. How was the rate of march increased? By increasing the length of the trot periods? *Emphatically, no!* This would have been the most certain way to exhaust horses on a hot day. The rate of march was increased to *8.9 miles per hour* by the following method. Trot 7 minutes at 10 miles per hour—walk 2 minutes—repeat. The Regiment accomplished its mission—one horse released from the Veterinary hospital two days previously and carrying a M.G. pack had to be dropped out. The Artillery kept up with the command and not a single horse-draft, pack or riding, except the one horse mentioned above, showed the slightest fatigue at the end of this fast 14½ mile movement!

An opposing regiment of Cavalry in this same problem also made an equally successful rapid movement. To accomplish its mission it was necessary to make *10 miles per hour*. It was successfully done at this rate for 9½ miles without exhausting a single horse by the following use of the method of frequent changes of gaits—trot 6 minutes at 10 miles per hour—walk 2 minutes at 4 miles per hour—gallop 4 minutes at 16 miles per hour—walk two minutes—repeat. Here, too, I am certain that a continuous 8-mile trot for one hour—in addition to not being fast enough—would have exhausted many horses and have been much harder on the men, who were in no way affected by the march as executed.

Flexible March Schedules

The necessity for *flexible* march schedules cannot be too strongly stressed. The cavalryman who makes out a march schedule and follows it blindly regardless of road condition, configuration of the ground or unforeseen incidents is not in reality a cavalryman—at best he is only a poor mathematician. Make your march schedule in advance—certainly—but don't follow it blindly. Figure ahead how you can vary it and be prepared to do it. I have seen commands trotted up hill or on bad going for the sole reason that the march schedule said it was time to trot. Such procedure for just a mile or so is equivalent to adding ten miles or more to the march, as far as the condition of mounts is concerned. Again, I have seen commands slowed down by bad going making up this time lost by trotting for long periods. I'm convinced that the proper procedure in such cases is *not* to make up such time by increasing trot period over 7 minutes in duration, but to do it by shortening the halt periods first and then the walk periods next if necessary. For example: your march schedule calls for alternate 7 minute trots and 3½ minute walks with a 10 minute halt each hour. You come to a seven minute trot period where conditions make you walk for the whole seven minutes. This puts you about one-half mile behind your schedule. Make it up by reducing your halt to 8 minutes and possibly your walks to 2 minutes, *then throw in* a short trot in the time so saved and you are on schedule again.

In conclusion, I wish to say that the more I work and experiment with the ordinary every day cavalry horse seen throughout our service, the more I appreciate his capability and courage. I am convinced that, if reasonably conditioned, intelligently ridden according to the principles outlined herein, he can go—in a period of time from 24 to 48 hours in duration—much farther and faster than the best of us can ride. When, however, the rider gets tired, begins to slouch in the saddle at the walk, pounds the loins of his horse at the trot, gets too tired to lead at the proper intervals, and does things that are easy for himself, though they may be hard on his horse, he has shifted *his* work over to a good animal and admits by such procedure—then and there—that he has played out before the horse.

The Use of Chemical Mortars in Cavalry Operations

By Lieut. L. M. Grener, 3rd Cavalry

WE live in an age of change and progress. In every activity of life there are being developed new tools and new methods. Science is revolutionizing industry.

The weapons of war are also being changed. The innovations introduced during the years of war from 1914 to 1918 were but a prelude to the greater changes and larger improvements in equipment and method which have been developed in the years of peace which have followed.

The task of evaluating these new developments, of judging their usefulness, of taking those which are good and adapting them to the practical needs of the combat arms, of rejecting those which are impractical, and of remodeling the fighting machine to better enable it to use its available weapons, has been one of the chief concerns of those who have directed our military affairs during the past ten or twelve years.

There are many people, in and out of the army, who have become so enchanted by the spectacle of modern science transforming the world that they can see nothing but perfection in anything new, and nothing but archaic uselessness in anything old. There are others, though they are fewer, who see no good in anything new, but constantly preach a return to good old methods. They would place their trust in the weapons and methods tried and proven by experience, and they view all innovations with great distrust.

Both of these classes are dangerous. Fortunately those who have held the reins of power in our army in the past ten years seem to have trod the happy middle ground. It is the only safe ground. One must retain the old until the new is proven better but one must always be open to conviction, must always be ready to take advantage of a development which seems valuable and practical.

Chemical warfare is one of these new developments. Possibly of all the new developments it is the one most pregnant with possibilities of decisive influence on the conduct of future wars.

The uses of chemical weapons in infantry operations and their effect on such operations have been partially put to test. Infantry in formulating its attitude toward chemical warfare has the experience gained in the last war to draw upon. Cavalry, as such, has had no such experience. The last war, at least in that theatre of operations, and in that phase in which our troops participated, was a stabilized war, and our cavalry had little part in it. What, then, has been the attitude of the cavalry toward chemical warfare?

We have been inclined to view chemical warfare as something applicable only to trench warfare, something we would not have to worry about as long as we were used in our proper role. We have counted on our mobility to get us away from gas. We have counted on the very nature of cavalry operations to relieve us of the necessity of remaining in the presence of gas. We have counted on the nature of our probable missions to take us away from the main routes of supply where it would be feasible for the enemy to use gas.

Of course we have realized that cavalry is always liable to be called upon to abandon temporarily its proper role, and in an emergency when infantry is more needed than anything else, to operate essentially as infantry. Under such circumstances we would be liable to have to face gas. Consequently we have considered it essential that cavalry troops be adequately trained in measures of protection against gas.

To the offensive side of chemical warfare we have given but little consideration. Associating the use of chemicals with stabilized warfare wherein cavalry, if employed, would lose its essential characteristics, we have given little attention to the whole subject. Even screening smoke, with all its possibilities has seemed to have but little application to the type of action in which we hoped to be engaged. Smoke was, until recently, put out only by the use of candles, artillery, and the 4-inch Stokes mortar.

To lay smoke by the use of candles requires that troops be present on the line to be screened, or that previous preparations of some magnitude be made. This method is not flexible; it cannot be placed in such a manner as to screen wide turning movements or rapid maneuvers. Even with infantry it has but a limited application.

Artillery, on the other hand, can place smoke anywhere within its range. It can place a screen immediately in front of the enemy or on either of his flanks. But 75 mm. artillery, which alone will ordinarily be available to cavalry is a very inefficient means of laying a smoke screen. The capacity of the shell is too small. The screen which can be laid by a battery or even a battalion is very small and, except under the most favorable conditions, of somewhat uncertain effectiveness. Furthermore, the small amount of artillery which will be ordinarily present with a cavalry force will usually be badly needed for other missions, and it will be but seldom that even a part of it can be spared for the firing of smoke.

The 4-inch Stokes mortar was effective and efficient within its range. But the range was too short. The main effort in any cavalry engagement will ordinarily be made by a maneuvering force which will make a very wide envelopment, an envelopment which would take it far out of range of the Stokes mortar at the very time when concealment was desired.

This, then, was the situation as to screening smoke and chemical agents in general, as it concerned the cavalry, until recently. Then the development of the 4.2-inch chemical mortar opened up a whole new range of possibilities. This new weapon was developed primarily to furnish chemical troops with a more effective mortar for the support of infantry. I doubt whether its application to cavalry was very much considered during the early stages of its development. It seems, however, to very satisfactorily meet the needs of the cavalry and to be capable of extensive use in cavalry operations. It seems to furnish a means for the dissemination of smoke, and possibly of other chemical agents, which will fit into the cavalry scheme of things. True, some changes must be made as to mount and means of transportation, but these changes are being considered and will doubtless be effected. The basic requirements have been met by this new weapon.

The special characteristics of the action of cavalry which must be considered in the development or adoption of any weapon designed for, or to be adapted to, its support are speed and mobility.

Cavalry action will be rapid. The very nature of the missions on which cavalry will ordinarily be engaged, as well as the utilization of its peculiar assets, will make its commander endeavor to strike a decisive blow quickly. The maximum fire power of the holding attack will be immediately developed, and the main effort will be made by force quickly dispatched, moving at a rapid gait to its line of departure. The main effort may, under favorable conditions, be made mounted. Ordinarily, in engagements of any considerable size, it will be made dismounted. But in either case a quick decision will be sought by a rapid movement to a line of departure as close to the objective as possible, followed by a determined advance by the bulk of the available forces so disposed as to develop their maximum strength at the outset. There will be comparatively little echelonment in depth, and reserves will be comparatively small.

A chemical weapon in support of a mobile force must itself be mobile. It must be capable of rapid movement and quick emplacement. It need not necessarily be capable of rapid movement across difficult terrain, for it will ordinarily be emplaced near the pivot of maneuver. But it must be well up when the action starts, so that it can be quickly put in action. From its position in rear of the pivot it must be ready immediately to support with smoke either the pivot in the holding attack or the maneuvering force in the main effort. This brings up the second general characteristic of cavalry action and the second main requirement for a supporting chemical weapon—a long range.

Cavalry will, wherever possible, seek a decision by wide maneuver. The resulting separation for forces does not, as is the case with infantry, become dangerous. This is particularly true when cavalry is operating against an enemy force of less mobility. Frontal attacks or mere envelopments will be exceptional, and wide turning movements, such as infantry cannot ordinarily risk attempting, will, with cavalry, be the rule.

The line of departure of the maneuvering force will often be at a great distance from the pivot of maneuver. To be of any value the chemical mortars must be able, from their position near the pivot, to reach to the line of departure of the maneuvering force, for it is there, or in that vicinity, that there will be the greatest need for concealing smoke. The mortars must also be able to lay and maintain a screen of considerable length.

Considering these general characteristics of cavalry action it seems apparent that there is great need for a smoke-laying weapon of adequate range and mobility. Maneuver is not possible without cover behind which to move. Smoke can create artificial cover and render possible movements which would otherwise entail too great exposure to hostile fire. To a force which attacks or defends in a long, thinly held line, the blanketing of enemy fire by smoke may be very important. In other cases smoke can be used to deceive the enemy as to the direction and nature of the attack to be delivered, giving our maneuvering force the benefit of surprise.

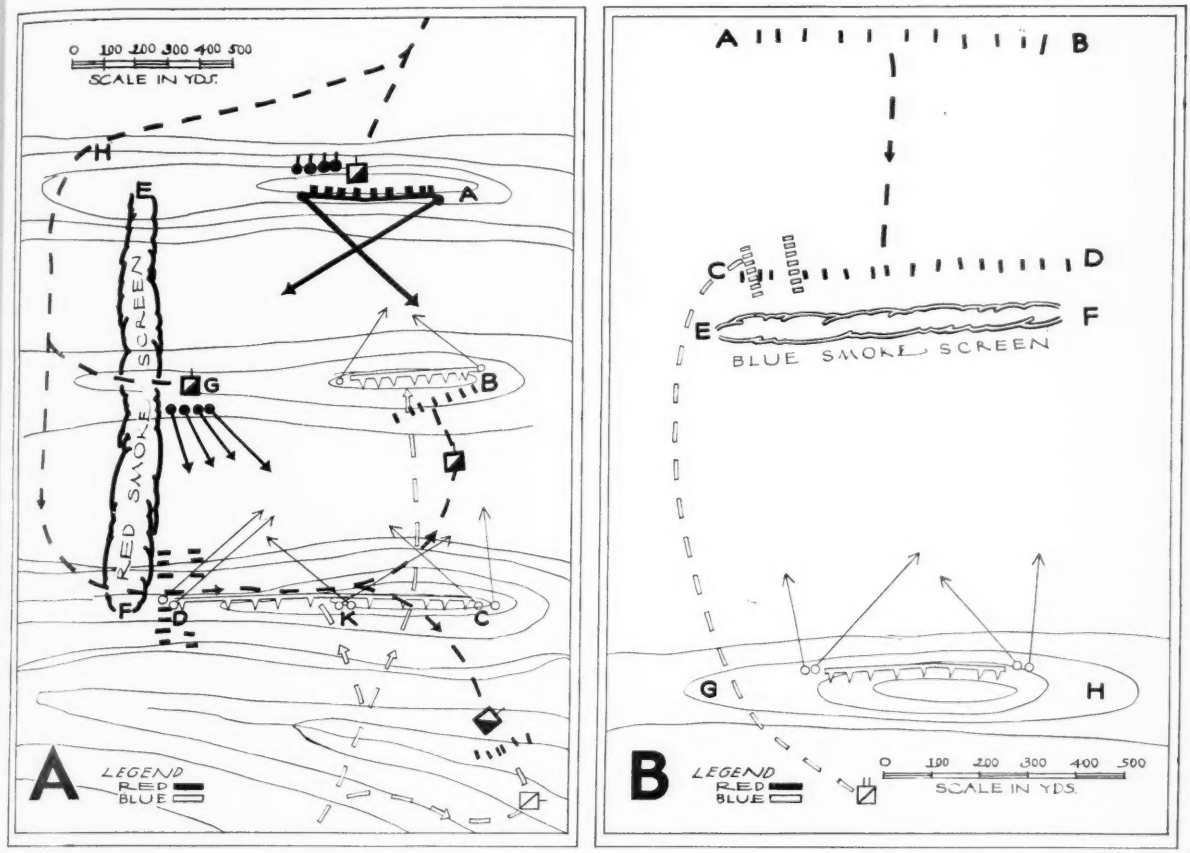
The 4.2-inch chemical mortar measures up well to all the noted requirements, except that of mobility. Its range, while not all that might be desired, will probably prove adequate in most situations. It may, furthermore, be increased. Its volume of fire is great. A battery of four mortars under average conditions can maintain a screen 1500 yards long. The problem of mobility is, it seems, capable of solution. Several experimental mounts have been devised, and it is to be expected that shortly something will be adopted which will be fairly satisfactory.

Assuming, then, that such a mount is forthcoming, and that a chemical company equipped with eight mortars is attached to a cavalry division, just how could these mortars be used in specific situations?

It may be well to consider first the case of a cavalry division in a meeting engagement with a hostile cavalry force of about the same size. Each side will deploy a pivot, about a regiment, and will seek information as to enemy dispositions. Our commander will probably decide to attack, turning one or the other of the hostile flanks, depending on the information he has received concerning enemy dispositions and the terrain. The maneuvering force, about a brigade, moving to its line of departure will probably be observed by troops in the hostile pivot and will often come under the fire of automatic weapons. If, however, a smoke screen is laid across the flank of the hostile pivot, the maneuvering force will, even in open and unfavorable terrain, often be able to come close to its objective before coming under fire and before it must start the actual attack.

During a maneuver at the Cavalry School in May, 1931, a smoke screen was used in just such a situation with great success. The sketch accompanying (Sketch A) although more or less schematic, will show essentially what occurred.

The Red advance guard, about a rifle troop and two machine guns, encountered the Blue advance guard of about the same strength. Leading elements seized ridges A and B respectively, and the advance guards were soon entirely deployed on those lines. The Blue main body was seen by the Reds to be going into posi-



tion along the ridge C-D. The Reds had two platoons of mortars. These the commander ordered into position in rear of the pivot, directing them to be prepared to lay a smoke screen on the line E-F. The signal for the screen was given by the commander of the maneuvering force, who fired a projector signal from H when he was about to cross the ridge near E. In this case the screen was actually laid by using candles to simulate the fire of the mortars, but the actual use of mortars firing W. P. would not have materially changed the action.

The maneuvering force, one squadron, followed by the Machine Gun Troop less elements with the pivot, moved out behind the ridge E-A. The signal was fired from H, the screen was laid, and the squadron, still followed by the Machine Gun Troop, moved as indicated behind the screen. The machine guns went into action on the ridge at G, and the squadron proceeded to the ridge on which the enemy main body was deployed, formed its order of attack and advanced. It charged toward the hostile flank in column of troops through the screen, which by this time was thinning, the mortars having stopped firing when the squadron reached the ridge to the right of F. The leading troop became visible to enemy machine gunners near D at a range of about 50 yards. The guns were then being moved by hand toward the screen in an effort to bring fire to bear on whatever Red forces were advancing beyond it. The machine gunners only got in one hasty burst before they were ridden down. The squadron swept down the enemy line almost unopposed. Confusion reigned among the Blues. Machine guns near K took the squadron under fire for a short time and would have obtained some casualties but would not have seriously affected the issue.

Red machine guns near G, on having their fire masked by the advancing squadron opened up on the Blue advance guard on the forward ridge at B. The leading troop of the attacking Red squadron, having swept over the enemy main position, turned to the left and took the Blue advance guard in rear, completing its destruction.

The commander of the rear troop of the Red attacking squadron, seeing a body of Blues mounting up in a draw to the right, charged them and routed the Blue reserve. In less than ten minutes after the smoke screen was laid not an organized body of Blues was left to offer any further resistance.

This was a small affair—one regiment on each side. But it was a typical situation, one which with minor modifications will frequently be met by a cavalry unit of any size. The brilliantly successful attack of the Reds in this problem illustrated very pointedly the possibilities offered by the use of chemical mortars firing smoke in operations of this character.

Often the use of smoke may make possible a mounted attack, leading to a quick and complete decision. Seldom will such an attack be possible relying solely on

natural cover, and faced with an enemy modernly armed with automatic weapons. In some cases it may be advisable and possible to place smoke on both flanks of the enemy position. He would thereby be still more mystified. Not knowing on which flank to expect the impending attack, he could prepare for it on neither.

Cavalry will frequently be employed in delaying action. When so employed it will ordinarily seek to delay the enemy in successive positions. Fire will be brought to bear on him at long ranges, forcing him to deploy and advance more slowly. The cavalry will then withdraw before it has become seriously engaged, to repeat the action on the next favorable terrain.

In this type of action chemical mortars could render valuable assistance. The withdrawal of the delaying force from each of its successive positions could be facilitated greatly by the use of smoke placed on the advancing enemy, or in front of the position being abandoned.

If, in this type of action a favorable opportunity should arise for the delaying force temporarily to assume the offensive in order to still further demoralize the pursuit, the availability of an effective smoke-laying weapon would add greatly to the essential element of surprise. For example, imagine a (Blue) cavalry regiment on a delaying mission against a far superior (Red) force of infantry. (See Sketch B.)

One squadron occupies a ridge, G-H which offers a good field of fire. It is supported by the Machine Gun troop. The enemy is forced to deploy along A-B but, being greatly superior, advances steadily. The delaying force, after a short resistance, lays a smoke screen along the line E-F. The attacking infantry has seen this happen before. It will advance rapidly, it will have its rifles carried any way, it will be unprepared for immediate action, being intent solely on getting on the other side of the screen to bring fire to bear, if possible, on the retiring cavalry. If, now, the other squadron moves out under cover of the smoke screen and strikes the pursuer in flank, say as he reaches the line D-C, it seems probable that it might almost destroy a very superior force.

This example is purely theoretical, but I believe it will serve to illustrate the possibilities offered by an intelligent and bold use of smoke in such operations.

Counterreconnaissance was once one of cavalry's principal functions. Many of the cavalry leaders of the Civil War built their reputations on the brilliant performance of counterreconnaissance missions. In many cases they made their most valuable contributions to the successes of their respective armies by the accomplishment of such missions. Now the increasing preeminence of the Air forces as agents of strategic reconnaissance has somewhat lessened the importance of cavalry counterreconnaissance. Still, however, it may frequently be so employed, for in the situation where the enemy seeks information by terrestrial reconnaissance it will be just as vital as it ever was that his efforts be thwarted.

In that phase of counterreconnaissance operations which is usually the first, namely the enemy's efforts to gain his information by the infiltration of small patrols through our screen, and our efforts to prevent his so doing, the use of chemical agents of any sort will, of course, be hardly profitable. Having failed, however, to obtain the desired information by the use of small patrols, it will be expected that the enemy will attempt to force his way through the screen. The screening cavalry must then concentrate to oppose the hostile thrust. It may oppose it by attacking and seeking to destroy the enemy cavalry, in which case the use of chemical agents will be much the same as in any meeting engagement. It may, if weaker, resort to delaying action, in which case the availability of chemical mortars, as shown above, would be extremely valuable. Or it may attempt either an active or passive defense.

Cavalry engaged in an active defense, whether that defense be undertaken in the performance of a counterreconnaissance mission, or of any other mission, will seek to hold the enemy with a part of its force, reserving the balance for an offensive blow when the opportunity presents itself. In an active defense smoke would be very valuable. The defensive position will perforce be but lightly held, and smoke could very well be used to blanket the automatic weapons of the enemy, or even his infantry firing line, thus lessening the danger of his obtaining decisive fire superiority over our weak defending force. When the time comes for us to assume the offensive, smoke could well be used to deceive the enemy as to the direction and nature of our attack just as in true offensive operations.

Cavalry, operating as such, should be very reluctant to engage in a passive defense. By so doing it loses its very character as a mobile force. However, circumstances may arise when cavalry will be forced to undertake a passive defense. Then cavalry will act essentially as infantry, and its chemical mortars would be employed exactly as are the chemical mortars supporting an infantry force.

Another type of defensive action on which cavalry will more frequently be employed is rear guards. The remarks already made on the employment of mortars in delaying action would apply.

It appears, then, that cavalry on most of the missions to which it may be assigned can advantageously employ chemical mortars. This weapon, though originally designed to support infantry, can just as effectively, possibly more effectively, be used by cavalry.

This will be true whether the cavalry in question is cavalry as it exists now or whether it be partly, or even completely, mechanized. In any case it will have the same missions and act in essentially the same manner. In any case it will attempt to carry out its missions by making the maximum use of its mobility.

The use of airplanes in laying smoke, and in spraying other agents, has also great possibilities. This use of chemicals is, however, another subject. The main reliance must be placed on mortars, for airplanes will not always be available.

I believe, therefore, that there should be as an integral part of a cavalry division at least one chemical company equipped with eight 4.2-inch chemical mortars, suitably mounted and transported, and that it should carry a large supply of smoke munitions.

The International Settlement

By Captain Stanley J. Grogan, Infantry, (DOL)

SHANGHAI, "The Gateway to China," at the mouth of the Yangtze River, has an urban agglomeration consisting of six (6) main areas.

(1) The Old City dating from the eleventh century A. D.
(2) The International Settlement.
(3) The French Concession.
(4) Chapei, a northern, outer suburb.
(5) Pootung, an eastern suburb.
(6) Nanton, a southern suburb.

There are three (3) distinctive administrative areas:

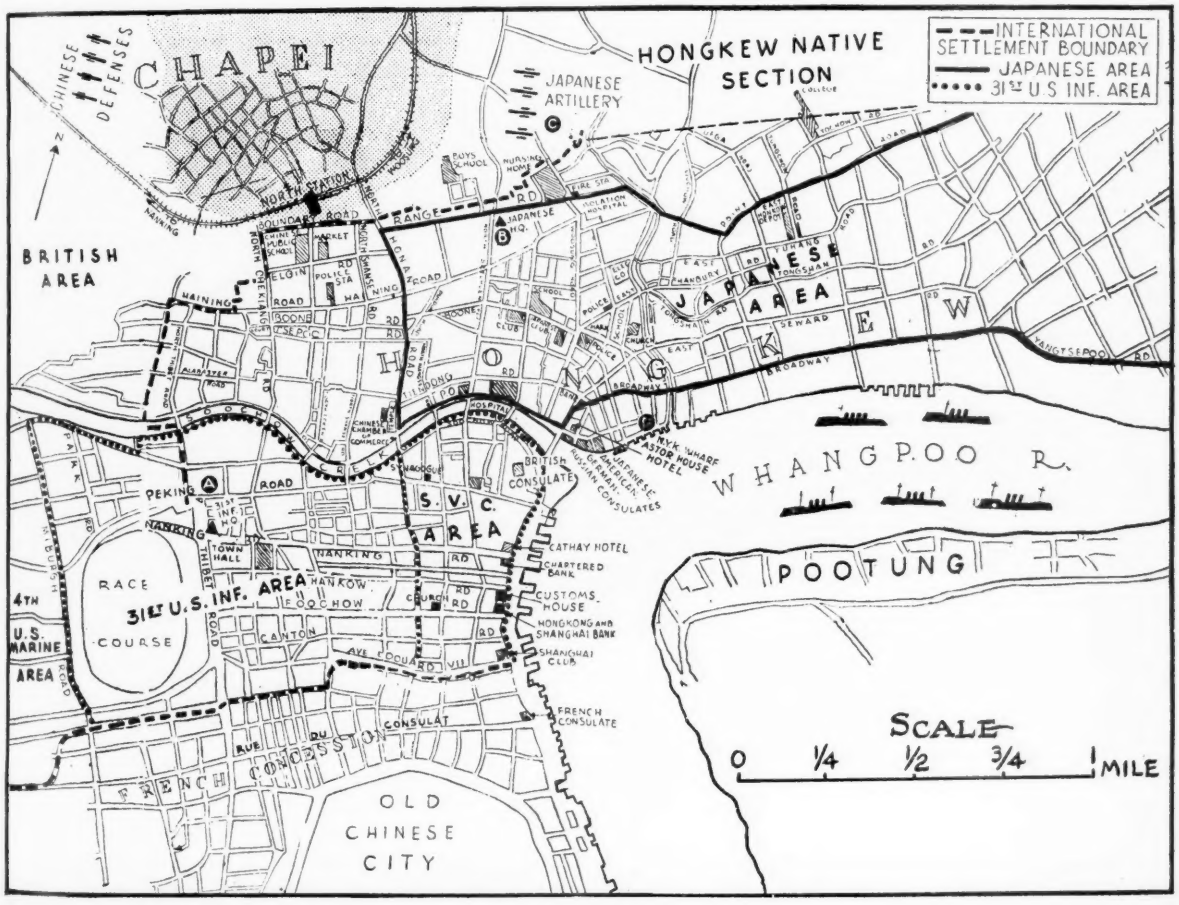
(1) The International Settlement.
(2) The French Concession.
(3) The Chinese Greater Shanghai.

Shanghai first came to the attention of the Western World, in a political sense, on August 29, 1842, the date on which the Treaty of Nanking was signed, bringing to an end the first war between England and China. By the terms of this treaty Shanghai was one of five (5) Chinese ports opened to foreign residence and commerce. This treaty did not provide specifically for exterritoriality or extraterritoriality i. e., communal or international law rule. The English government said extraterritorialty was applied in that treaty though not actually embodied, in that the treaty read, in part, as follows, regarding foreign merchants:

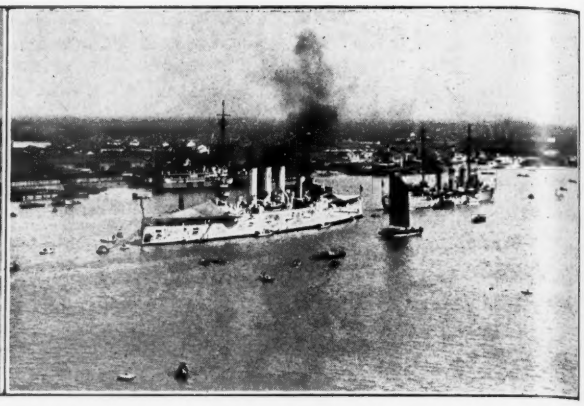
> "They with their families and establishments shall be allowed to reside for the purpose of carrying on their mercantile pursuits without molestation or restraint," in the five treaty ports, one of which was Shanghai.

On October 8, 1843, the Nanking Treaty was supplemented and regulations for trade were agreed upon by China and England and by this supplementary treaty England became "the most favored nation" and the two governments agreed upon tariff provisions.

On November 14, 1843, Captain George Balfour, Indian Artillery, established the British Consulate at Shanghai, became the first Britian Counsul at Shanghai, and on that date—November 14, 1843—Shanghai was opened, formally, to foreign trade.



The American Consulate



Man o' War Row

Captain Balfour rented quarters containing fifty-two (52) rooms at an annual rent of four hundred dollars ($400.00) with the Taotai he arranged for land for a settlement. Since it was illegal to sell outright land belonging to His Imperial Majesty it was arranged to rent the land in perpetuity at an annual rental. No definite boundaries marked this first settlement or "British location." The settlement was one of 150 acres, with the Whangpoo River as the eastern boundary, the Yankingpang River as the southern boundary, the western boundary undefined, and the north bounded by what is now the Peking Road. Later the western boundary was put at Barrier Road (now Honan Road). Britain regarded this location as hers. Some historians hold that while this location was exclusively British it was a "concession" and they quote the following definitions by Dr. Tyau in his book, "Treaty Obligations Between China and Other States":

Concession: "A piece of ground conveyed by deed or grant in perpetuity to a lessee state for the residence of its nationals, the same to be administered by it, 'saving the sovereign rights of the Emperor of China.' "

Settlement: "A site selected for the residence of all foreigners, within which they may organize themselves into a muncipality for certain purposes and be governed by their elected representatives."

Now, the British admitted all who come to "British Location" stipulating only that whatever regulations were imposed on British residents should also be borne by the others. Some historians declare, therefore, that the entry of other than British nationals under these conditions made the location a 'half settlement' instead of a whole concession.

America's first treaty with China, the Treaty of Wanghai, was signed on July 3, 1844. Caleb Cushing negotiated the Treaty for the United States. The American Secretary of State, Daniel Webster, merely instructed Mr. Cushing to arrange a treaty, and he wrote Mr. Cushing: "Let it be just."

In this treaty extraterritorialty was distinctly provided for; China was expected to protect United States citizens within her borders, and the United States was granted all rights and privileges given to Great Britain by the "most favored nation" clause.

On October 24, 1844, the Treaty of Whampoa was signed by France and China. It differed from the British and American treaties with China only in that it denied to China the right to arrest French criminals in places open to foreign commerce.

The Belgians and the Swedes were next to negotiate treaties.

In 1849 there was a slight rift between the three treaty nations—England, America and France, when France insisted that land could not be purchased in "French Ground" without the consent of the French Counsul, The United States and England maintained that China had no power to give exclusive rights to any one people (the French) after having conceded general rights to all. The French based their claim on an agreement entered into on April 6, 1849 by M. Montigny, first consul for France and Ling Taotai. This agreement provided for the establishment of and government of a French concession with definite boundaries, which were:

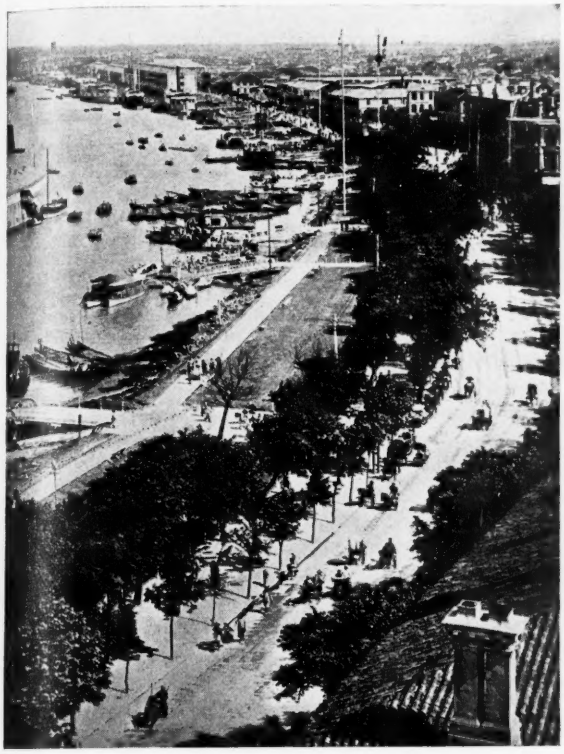
South—Part of moat along City Wall
North—Yangkingpang River
East—River side from Canton Guild to Yangkingpang river.
West—Creek, Kuan-ti-Miao, to Chow family bridge subject to further extension if desired.

American and French merchants went into the "British Location" to settle and maintained that they had equal rights with the British as a result of the treaties of their respective governments with China. H. C. Wolcott, first acting American consul, established a consulate in Hongkew, across the Soochow Creek, in February, 1854, and raised the United States flag in "the American settlement." Britain and Taotai protested but the situation politically was unchanged. Mr. H. B. Morse in his book, "The International Relations of The Chinese Empire," says (Vol. 1, p. 349) re the American settlement:

> "It was not created" but "just growed. It was, in fact, a settlement by suffrance."

The International Settlement, as such, dates from July 11, 1854, when the three Treaty Consuls,—Al-

cock, Murphy, and Edan,—for England, United States and France, respectively, drew up a code of regulations applicable to the British and French concession



The Bund

areas, giving them an international Municipal Council. China agreed to the regulations. One of the main reasons for drawing up these regulations was to get a common governing body because the English and American naval authority present in the harbor from time to time was independent of the ministerial or consular authority on land. A year previously, on April 12, 1853, the Shanghai Volunteer Corps, came into being at a meeting of the community attended by the consuls and naval officers of the three Treaty powers. It was determined to adopt a policy of armed neutrality and organize a volunteer corps due to the proximity of the Imperial Camp on Soochow Creek and of the rebel camp—the Small Swords— in the Chinese city of Shanghai. The French, however, helped the Imperialists drive out the "Small Swords."

On June 26, 1858 the Treaty of Tientsin ended the British-French war against China and extraterritoriality was further elaborated. Treaties of 1842-1844 and 1858-1860 defined the legal basis on which intercourse between the Occident and China was to be conducted; although modified from time to time, the main outlines are still the basis of the legal status of foreigners in China.

In 1862 the French formally withdrew from the Land Regulations of 1854 that marred the birth of the International Settlement and ever since 1862 the French Concession has been a distinct municipality. The Land Regulations of 1854 while drawn up by the British, American and French Consuls covered the British and French concessions.

The American Settlement in Hongkew was at this time called "the Cinderella among the settlements." Edward Cunningham, of Russell and Company, and George F. Seward, United States Consul, in 1863 asked for one municipal government for both settlements. The union was effected on September 21, 1863, and what is sometimes called the "International Settlement north of the Yangkingpang" was born. Seward and Huang Taotai agreed to the following boundary lines for the United States Concessions.

Starting from a point opposite the Defence Creek it extended down the Soochow Creek and the Whangpoo, to three (3) miles up the Yangtzepoo Creek, and then in a straight line back to the point facing the Defence Creek.

This union brought the American concession within the Land Regulations of 1854.

An International Mixed Court was established in the Settlement in 1864.

In 1870 control of the Shanghai Volunteer Corps was given solely to the International Municipal Council, and a rifle range was built.

The Volunteer Corps consists of infantry, machine gunners, field artillery, with a total strength of around 1600 including its reserves. Its members include Americans, British, Italians, Portuguese, Chinese and Japanese.

There is also the Shanghai Defense Force, of professional soldiers, amounting normally to a mixed division (British strength) with armored cars and attached troops. In 1928 the strength of this force was reduced to that of a British brigade.

For more than 60 years the United States Consuls, who were layman and consul merchants, were the sole American courts in China. In 1848 the Congress of the U. S. decided that "jurisdiction in criminal and

Visiting the Great Wall

civil matters shall in all cases be exercised and enforced in conformity with the laws of the United States, which are hereby, so far as necessary to exe-

cute said treaty, extended over all citizens of the United States in China."

Land regulations were agreed to with China in 1845, 1854, 1869, 1898 and 1899.

The International Settlement exercises complete powers of self-government, including police control. The executive power is the Municipal Council, elected until 1926 entirely by the foreign tax payers. But the Treaty Powers permitted Chinese to live within the settlement, taxed them but did not permit them a voice in the government. The Chinese population became 95% of the Settlement. Student demonstrations and a wave of Chinese nationalism resulted in the Rendition Agreement of 1926 which gave Chinese a voice in the government of the Settlement, and provided that three Chinese be members of the Council. The Council consists of:

Five British members.
Three Chinese members.
Two Americans members.
Two Japanese members.

The boundaries of the International Settlement and of the French Concession have been extended from time to time, by the building of roads, as the result of internal crises that would result in China granting an extension. Definite dates of International boundary extensions were November, 1848, June, 1803, July, 1899 and International roads were extended in 1926. There are twelve nations represented in the International Settlement. The extension of the International Settlement in 1899 gave it an area of 8.35 square miles or 5,584 English acres. It is 7.5 miles at its greatest length and 2.27 miles at its greatest width.

There are five distinct steps marking the growth of International Settlements from a trading post to an international commercial and industrial center:

1. Granting consent for Chinese to reside within boundaries of Settlement and 95% of population became Chinese.
2. Change from trading post to manufacturing center after Chinese-Japanese War of 1895.
3. Development of harbor after Boxer outbreak enabled Shanghai to become one of the great shipping ports of the world.
4. Adoption of policy of neutralty by International Settlement making it of great political importance for factions could meet there and plan against government and it was a safe harbor for political refugees.
5. Revolt of Chinese residents against paternal government and growing spirit of nationalism and student demonstrations resulting in Chinese getting voice in Settlement government.

The foundation of the International Settlement rests on:

(1) Treaties.
(2) Land Regulations.
(3) Political force; moral force—"God helps those who help themselves."

The United States does not assume responsibility for the government of any concession. The American concession "just growed." American citizens live in all concessions. They enjoy the rights and privileges of all "treaty foreigners." In Shanghai the American School and the American Church are in the French concession, a distinct municipality, and many Americans live there. Nearly all American business houses are in the International Settlement which has Americans on its Municipal Council, the executive power.

Over a century ago Napoleon Bonaparte said of China:

> "There lies a sleeping giant. Let him sleep; for when he wakes he will move the world."
>
> Europe woke the giant. John Hay, the American minister said:
>
> "The storm center of the world has shifted—to China. Whoever understands that mighty Empire has a key to world politics for the next five centuries."

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Army Officers Aid in Designing New Lantern

A NEW type of gasoline lantern, designed with the aid of Army officers, is now being manufactured by the Coleman Lamp and Stove Company of Wichita, Kansas. The "Coleman Sport-Lite" is 12 inches high, weighs 3 pounds and produces a light of 150 candle-power. The Pyrex clear glass globe protects the mantle from wind, rain and insects. The fuel capacity of 1¾ pints is enough for 7 to 9 hours of service. The retail price is $5.95. Any Post Exchange Officer can secure them.

Test by personnel of the office of the U. S. Cavalry Association indicates that the lantern is practical and gives a marvelous light.

On Foot Through the Cagayan Valley

By Lieutenant T. Q. Ashburn, Jr.

"A tour of duty in the Philippine Islands is not complete without a trip through the Ifugao and Bontoc country. The natives, their life and customs, are far more interesting than the Moros of Mindanao and Sulu. Although the tribes are non-Christian, it is perfectly safe for a white man to travel among them unarmed."—MILITARY HANDBOOK OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

AFTER days of preparation, arranging for transportation, telephoning ahead for accommodations at rest houses, consulting with constabulary officers, hiring guides and purchasing food and equipment, we found ourselves at Bontoc, the jumping-off place for our great adventure. Three days north of Babuio, the mountain health resort of the Philippine Islands, we were already out of touch with civilization except for the single telephone line that connected out-of-the-way rest houses with constabulary posts scattered like needles among a haystack of mountains.

Our trip up the zig-zag trail from Manila to Baguio had seemed like a dream. A winding ribbon of road, spiraling ever upward, chiseled in the bone of a mountain range, stood, an everlasting tribute to the dream and perserverance of an army engineer; the coolness and tang of the air an invigorating tonic after the muggy, fetid heat of Manila; the scent of the pine needles too good to be true! It all had seemed a dream, for one instinctively felt that two such extremes of climate and scenery could not by any freak of nature exist in the Philippine Islands; not even seven hours by automobile from Manila. And from the first time we saw an Igorote, clad only in a "G-string," at No. 1 gate, we thrilled to the lure of the primitive. Even after becoming accustomed to the non-Christian tribes we never ceased to feel a little catch in our throats when looking down from the clouds over "Happy Valley" or at the breath-taking scenery that a munificent Creator had splashed throughout the Mountain Province to atone for his oversight in the other parts of the Philippines. Non-Christian or savage, one felt instinctively that this country must produce a finer type of people than the civilized lowlands. At least they were finer physical specimens, with magnificent limbs moulded in bronze and a primitive code which they lived up to! But I digress.

At Bontoc we found our two cargadores waiting for us. Small, with high cheek bones and crystal-clear eyes, barrel-like chests, and arm and leg muscles standing out like cords, they wore only a "G-string." Grinning from ear to ear, they informed us that their names were, respectively, Dumlao and Amado. Without bargaining beforehand for good rates, we engaged them on the spot and demanded that they take us to an "Oolog."

Striding ahead like two panthers, they conducted us to a long nipa shack, raised high off the ground by bamboo poles, and called to the girls inside who came to the windows and smiled shyly at us. So this was an "Oolog!" This primitive shack, nesting among the pines, was where the unattached girls of the tribe lived and received their boy friends! Trial marriage. Modern? Bunk! For many thousands of years the people of the northern mountains of Luzon have practised this custom. The picture of the two girls clad only in banana leaves would seem to prove conclusively that Mother Eve still roams the far corners of the earth; at least in an "Oolog" if no longer in Eden.

We left Bontoc at 7:00 a. m. the next morning and had luncheon at Baluag Camp where we came across an old woman smoking a cigar as big as she was. With her scrawny neck and monkey face protruding from an old "Mother Hubbard," her cavernous cheeks and sunken eyes, and with one dirty bare foot peeping shamelessly from beneath her dress, she resembled an old scarecrow more than a human being.

After partaking of a cold meal on the trail, our cargadores tried to work us by demanding more than their schedule called for. Being ignorant of their customs, we agreed to pay them one peso (fifty cents) per day for carrying our forty pounds of equipment. Being successful in their demands, they passed the word along and thereafter it was impossible for us to secure cargadores at the fixed rate of seventy centavos (thirty-five cents) per day.

We learned later that some Americans had been in the habit of giving twenty centavos or less, extra, each day for chow money. As the Igorote seldom gets enough to eat, this is not a bad plan for getting good service, although it should be impressed upon them at the time that this is a voluntary gift and not a requirement. We also learned that cargadores should be hired daily instead of for the entire trip because they are then both cheaper and fresher and there is less risk of them developing sore feet. But, unfortunately, we didn't learn this until too late.

In our baggage we had included some articles of barter such as tobacco, which the entire Igorote family smokes, matches, which are always eagerly received, buttons, greatly desired by the young men as ornaments for their hats, needles, and perfume of the five and ten cent variety. While small change could usually procure what was needed, the natives apparently placed a higher value upon the above-mentioned articles.

After agreeing to pay our cargadores what they asked, we continued on the trail and finally arrived that same afternoon at the private rest house of Mr. Sarol in Tinglayan. The term "Rest House" was to all intents and purposes a misnomer for neither was

it a house nor was it restful. A mere bamboo shack on stilts, it differed from an "Oolog" only in size—it was smaller. Nevertheless, it was a shelter even if the rats did carry away my sock which, in an unguarded moment, I had left on the floor under the rough bench

Photo by Air Corps, U. S. Army

Air View of Camp John Hay

of bamboo which served as our bed. Thereafter we learned that an iron-clad rule of the trail was that one must never leave shoes or clothing on the floor at night on account of the huge rats that infest all the "rest houses." Having served two years in the Philippines, I was prepared to have my socks carried off by the ants but not by the rats.

The next morning we awoke stiff and tired, to resume our journey. The trip from Tinglayan to Bangad was uneventful except for our difficulty in making ourselves understood at Luboagan, where we desired to purchase a "Minook," as Dan called it. Finally, by flapping his arms and cackling like a chicken and then by repeating the performance and squatting to give an imitation of a hen laying an egg, he managed to make himself understood. By the time we got the chicken, I was convulsed with laughter and the two cargadores were flat on the ground howling in glee. Even the natives were so tickled that the tears were running down their faces for the primitive gives way to his emotions unrestrainedly. I started to enter the nipa shack to pay for the chicken when the owner, gesticulating violently, motioned me away. Since this was the first time in history a native had ever refused money from an American, my curiosity was aroused. Later I learned that the bamboo poles laid horizontally on short supports to form a cordon around the house, which I in my ignorance had mistaken for a fence, signified that there had recently been a death in the family and that it was bad luck for the bereaved to have a stranger enter.

After a welcome break of chicken in our diet which had heretofore consisted of sandwiches and flat-tasting boiled water, we celebrated by drinking some San Miguel beer which had providentially found its way to this small barrio in Northern Luzon. Then in spite of a consuming desire for a mid-day siesta, we "hit the trail" and entered the sub-province of Kalinga where we were met by the "King" in all his glory. He had received word of our coming and was dressed for the occasion as the picture clearly shows. Fortunately, in return for a little "Cumsha" in the shape of tobacco, some perfume and a dozen large pearl buttons, we had no difficulty in persuading him to pose for his picture. I say fortunately because ordinarily the mountain people believe that an "Anito" (evil spirit) looks out of the camera lens and that a shorter life is certain if the camera is pointed at them. Sometimes pictures can be obtained by getting the native to look through the finder, thus arousing his curiosity, while another photographer gets his picture.

Finally, we left the "King" and pushed on to the constabulary station tucked away in the mountains of Luboagan where we spent the night this time in a wooden shack instead of a nipa one. With the experience of the previous night still fresh in our minds, we hung our clothes on a rope stretched across the room and slept the rest of the weary.

After breakfasting on fried eggs, secured from our friends the constabulary, we left Luboagan and on the way to Limus were spell-bound as the superb beauty of the country unfolded before us. Mountains, embraced by pine trees, climbing to the skies; a veritable stairway to Paradise! Breath-taking chasms that awed by their stillness. Gorge-cutting falls that babbled of eternity. Beautiful green rice paddies carved like wisdom teeth in the very jaws of the hills! Step upon step of rice terraces, tilled by the mighty carabao, plucking a living for primitive man from the very visage of Nature.

Occasionally we would pass bands of Igorotes, traveling in groups of a dozen or more for self-protection, beating their "Devil Chasers" (short canes slit like a clothespin so as to whang when struck upon the ground) to ward off the white man's "Devils;" the women and children, with great loads upon their heads, turning aside their faces as we passed. Igorotes—Indians—Indians—Igorotes! Which were they? Were we in the Philippine Islands or in our own United States? It seemed hard to decide.

At Limus, a small barrio, we met the man who mutilated himself in order to frighten his enemies. That he succeeded in striking terror in the hearts of all who surveyed him is well borne out by the picture. Pushing on to Pinucquc, we met Major Dosser of the Philippine Constabulary who entertained us most of the evening with descriptions of the people of Apayao and some of their customs.

It seems, according to the Major, that the tribe is known locally as the Isneg and they usually treat travelers very well. In some rancherias (towns) however, the people appear surly or suspicious. In others, they will all take to the hills or only a few men will remain. None of these things denote danger unless

A River Valley in Benguet

A Zig-Zag Trail in Benguet

large bodies of armed men congregate without women and children.

Isneg do not care to give their names. No man should be asked directly what his name is unless the person asking knows him well and has forgotten it. Ask the man with him and the information will be forthcoming.

No Isneg woman should be joked with or touched by anyone. We had to caution our cargadores about this for they had rather fancied themselves with the women in Bontoc.

It is not necessary to drink bassi that is offered. If the traveler pleads that he is afflicted with a weak stomach, his refusal will give no offense. If a drunken Isneg insists that the visitor drink with him, the latter can pretend to drink and all will be well.

In some places the owner of a house will make energetic protests against the stranger entering. It is considered an omen of bad luck for a stranger to set foot in a house where a child is expected.

With all this useful information carefully digested, we left Pinucpuc the following morning and had occasion to gain some first hand information about still another Isneg custom. In order to get to Ripang which was to be our next stop-over, it was necessary to cross the Saltan River which at the time was high and dangerous. After a great deal of persuasion we had the Presidente (Mayor) of Pinepuc build us a stout bamboo raft for three pesos but when the raft was completed, our two cargadores refused to set foot on it. We urged them in every way, at first with soft promises and cajoleries, then with threats, but all to no avail. Solemnly, they informed us that the death of a child forbids the father crossing a stream of any size for one year. It seemed that Dumlao had lost his four months old son less than a year ago and his boon companion, Amado, refused to go on without him. Finally, after much argument and a voluminous amount of interpreting, the Presidente came to our rescue and provided us with two other cargadores from his rancheria who guided us to Ripang where we were able to secure fresh eggs and a "Minook" from the Municipal Secretary.

We left Ripang early the next morning in order to have luncheon at the Presidente's house in Talafugu where we met Diego Kinaguran, the most famous fighter in the Province. Small, grey-headed, with piercing black eyes that still snapped in spite of his years, he beamed like a full moon when I referred to his fame. Chuckling with pride that his exploits were still remembered in far-off Manila, he told me that he had fought both the Spaniards and then the Americans in the early days until he was defeated by the latter in 1905 and had to surrender his son, Juan, to the Provincial Constabulary Commander as a guarantee of good faith. Juan was educated by Captain H. Knauber, Provincial Commander at that time, and is now Sanitary Inspector of Apayao. The Old Man seemed very proud of his son and was quite disappointed that we had to leave without meeting him.

Before departing, however, we learned how Governor Harris of the Mountain Province abolished head-hunting in the "Days of the Empire." It seems, according to Old Diego Kinaguran, that when the governor first arrived in the Mountain Province, he found that the first requisite of manhood was an enemy's head. Neighboring rancherias were constantly warring among themselves and in each barrio the man who took the most heads was elected chief, by virtue of his prowess. Gathering all the chiefs of the rancherias together, Harris told them that he represented the "Great White Father in Washington" and that they must adopt the white man's customs and abolish head-hunting. Indignantly, they arose from where they had been squatting in a circle around the Governor and stated proudly that for generations they had followed the customs of their ancestors and that never would they consent to abandon this ancient and honorable custom.

"Very well," said Harris, "if you won't adopt my customs, I must adopt yours. Now you are all chiefs, selected for your prowess in taking heads. I am a greater chief than any of you and have never taken a head. Consequently, I am ashamed. Therefore, in order to prove my power to you, I am going to take the heads of all your dearest relatives! You can't take

my head for I have the Army and the Constabulary behind me. Now think it over. Do I adopt your customs or do you adopt mine?"

The result was that head-hunting or rather the practice of collecting heads publicly has been abolished to this day. Throughout the recital of this tale, Old Kinaguran chuckled and chuckled as he recalled how Harris had caught him where the hair was short.

Upon being pressed for more information, the lovable Old Man opened up and told us how highly the Igorotes had prized their warrants as non-commissioned officers in the Constabulary. It seems that Governor Harris organized the Igorotes into Constabulary companies and made the sons of Chiefs first sergeants. One day an Igorote ran amuck and killed a man in his own town. The first sergeant of the nearest constabulary company was sent to bring in the murderer. Now it happened that this first sergeant was the son of the bitterest enemy of the chief of the rancheria where the crime was enacted. Nevertheless, the people of the town not only allowed their hereditary enemy safe conduct but actually captured the head-hunter and turned him over to the sergeant because they had promised Harris to abolish head-hunting.

On the way back to headquarters, the prisoner attempted to escape and his captor shot him through the leg. Since this all happened on the mountain trail and the wounded man was much bigger than the sergeant, the latter was in a terrible quandary. His orders said to bring in the prisoner dead or alive and if he went back for help, the man might escape. Therefore, his duty was obvious; he pulled out his pistol and killed the prisoner. Then he reported to the Governor.

Shortly thereafter, an enraged deputation from the dead man's village called on the governor and demanded the first sergeant's head. Harris tried to explain that the sergeant thought he was in the performance of his duty when he killed the man but the visiting chief said "No, he was not! When he shot him to prevent his escaping, that was performance of duty. But when he killed him, that was murder. Now, we want this man's head!"

Harris argued and argued and asked the chief if he wouldn't accept ten pigs, twenty chickens and three carabao in exchange for the sergeant's head; more than had ever been offered for one life!

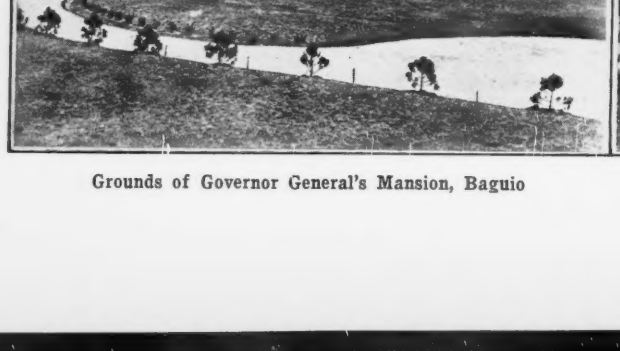
But the Igorotes stubbornly refused the offer. They demanded a head for a head! Finally, in desperation, Harris asked if there was nothing that would satisfy the tribe's honor except a head. The natives conferred among themselves and then triumphantly announced "Yes! We demand either this man's head or his warrant as first sergeant!" So the governor had to reduce the soldier to a private and transfer him to another post to live down the disgrace.

After regretfully taking leave of the Presidente and Diego, we pushed on to Banuan and from there to Kubagao, the capitol of Apayao where we made arrangements with the constabulary officers to use their banquillas for the trip down the Abulug River the next day.

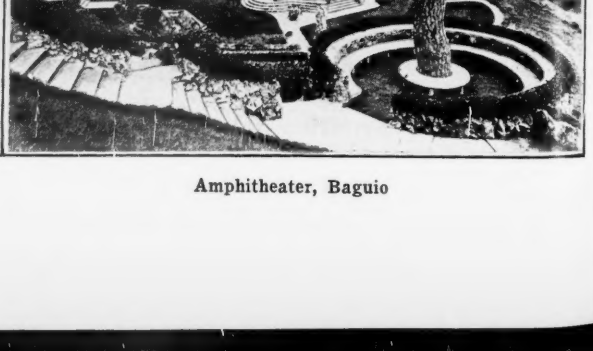
This trip took us about eight hours but it was a welcome relief from the monotony of hiking every day. It was much easier to sit in a banquilla and let the scenery roll by as the current carried us downstream, even if our hearts did leap into our mouths several times as we miraculously dodged jagged rocks in the stream. The remainder of the trip from Tauit to the mouth of the Futol (dagger) River was uneventful and we spent the night in the house of a fat Spanish mestiza with three double chins who styled herself "Dona Castoria." In spite of her bulk and Grande Dame airs, when once her tremendous inertia was overcome, she could make even a carabao steak, smothered in grease, taste good.

From Dona Castora's to Appari where we put up at the poor hotel of another Spaniard named Fernandez was but a day by rowboat and before we knew it we were at our destination, the mouth of the Cagayan Valley!

From that moment on our trip lost interest and we could scarcely wait to get back to civilization and good food. Wasn't it Napoleon who said "An Army Marches On Its Stomach!"?



Grounds of Governor General's Mansion, Baguio



Amphitheater, Baguio

The Japanese Language Detail

By First Lieutenant John Weckerling, Infantry (D.O.L.)

WHEN I was ordered to Japan "for the purpose of pursuing a course of study in the Japanese language," as my orders read, I naturally consulted persons whom I supposed at the time to be acquainted with conditions in Japan and with the requirements, aims, and scope of the language course. I was variously told that "the detail was a cinch"; "a matter of four years leave"; "why you will have a palace to live in, complete with tinkling brook, stone idols and lanterns, etc." * * * "You can have a houseful of servants for $10.00, etc., etc." However, my own idea in asking for the detail was "serious," in a manner of speaking, but it was very nice of course to hear that things were so very perfect from the standpoint of the pay check.

Nevertheless, I had visited Japan during 1925 and was not prepared to believe everything in regard to this haven for limited incomes.

I do not intend to give the impression that living conditions in Japan are bad. They are not. For a time after the great earthquake in 1923 foreign houses were scarce and, when available, rents prohibitive. Things are changing, however, and foreign houses are being built rapidly and the number of foreigners in Japan is decreasing. Rents are reasonable and compare favorably with those of the United States. For that matter some may find the Japanese type of house not at all bad.

Amusements are getting better and many things which foreigners consider indispensable can be bought in Japan with increasing celerity. However it is not the purpose of the present article to discuss living conditions in a detailed way but to give some idea of the Japanese language and the methods of study pursued by the officers who are detailed as students.

The officer who comes out to Japan with the idea that this is "four years leave" is going to be just as disillusioned as the officer who thinks he can rent a palace (with lacquer bridge) and servants complete for twenty dollars. On the other hand it is not entirely a four-year grind.

The Japanese Language

To begin with the Japanese language is one of the most difficult languages in the world. Up to the year 400 A. D. the Japanese had no written language, but about that time a number of court scholars imported a part of the Chinese ideographs and applied them arbitrarily to the Japanese words. The original idea of the Chinese character or ideograph system of writing was that of drawing a picture or characterization of the object supposed to be represented. However thru the centuries great changes in their manner of writing were evolved and they were shortened considerably. Nevertheless to this day these evolutions may be traced or actually seen in the case where the writing of a character has changed but little.

Other invasions of Chinese ideographs occurred and were used in the same manner as related above. Therefore we find that the readings or sounds of these present day characters will have, in most cases, a number of Chinese and Japanese readings. However the great length of time that has passed since the adoption of these ideographs together with the fact that the Japanese mouth and tongue could not frame the harsh-sounding consonants of the Chinese, makes it impossible for the Japanese and the Chinese to understand each other today in speech. The general idea of written things is, however, understood.

Of course the Chinese never adopted the Japanese language, so there is no reason for them to understand a Japanese talk, but the Japanese did have the tremendous influence of the Chinese ideographs and their sounds upon their language. They even did such things in their enthusiasm for the culture of the Middle Kingdom as to use the pure Chinese sounds of many words and to put two Chinese sounds together to make them a Japanese word. Notwithstanding today the spoken languages are completely different and each must start from scratch in learning the other's tongue.

The Influence of Other Foreign Languages on Japanese

With the limited relations with European countries due to the fact that Japan was not "discovered" by them until the 16th century and principally due to the exclusion of all foreigners by the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1639, there was little or no foreign influence on the Japanese language up to the opening of Japan by Perry in 1854 except for the extremely few words that have been taken from the Dutch and Portuguese traders and missionaries and adopted into Japanese. It must not be thought, however, that the vogue for things Chinese ever entirely waned and many scholars and educated persons even today are enthusiastically reading the Chinese classics and literature. With the opening of Japan to Western influences and the Restoration of power to the Imperial house in 1868, there followed the events known to the world today so well that they do not bear repeating. The small insignificant Japan of 1868 (so thought of by foreigners) hardly out of feudalism (in fact it was not abolished until a few years later) amazed the world by becoming a first-class power in a surprisingly short time. These events, of course, had a great effect upon the language. English has become the predominate tongue among the foreign languages and is taught in all schools. It is the technical and commercial language, and many words are adopted into the Japanese with a native accent.

The Army however requires their officers and non-

commissioned officers to know the intricate parts of rifles, machine guns, etc., by the very difficult native names.

Various Styles

One of the most perplexing things to foreigners is the fact that in addition to the ordinary conversational Japanese there are various styles, such as the letter writing style, speech and literary styles. In each of these styles there are words, expressions and phrasings that are peculiar only to that special style and which, if used for instance in conversation, would sound extremely ridiculous.

Also in writing the characters the Japanese will not as a general thing write them as they are printed in the newspapers. He will abbreviate them (in the approved method if educated) or in his own style if he does not happen to know the correct way of abbreviation. The

JAPANESE CHARACTERS

The character.	*Slightly abbreviated.*	*Greatly abbreviated.*
東	東	东
櫻	櫻	桜
間	间	冒

style of greatest abbreviation called "sosho" (literally meaning "grass writing") looks like nothing clearer than snake tracks to the uninitiated, especially when written carelessly. At that many Japanese have confided to me that another man's handwriting is almost entirely unintelligible in parts to them but that the general meaning can be guessed.

The Language Course and Methods of Study

The usual method of study is for the teachers to come to the homes of the students. The text books are those that have been written by foreigners who have made a long study of Japanese. Most students combine the study of these textbooks with the more pleasant direct method of learning to speak fluently, i. e., conversation.

Language students are given a monthly allowance of $45.00, which is just sufficient to cover the cost of books and to pay the teachers for two hours of instruction daily.

The present Military Attaché is, however, making a trial of the school system and the three officers who reported in Japan in October, 1931, are combined into a language study group under an experienced teacher for the first period of six months. Classes are held daily except Sundays for a period of three hours—the remainder of the time being devoted to preparation and study. If this method proves a success it will doubtless be continued.

Other than to be prepared to pass a comprehensive examination the student officer is very much on his own as to methods of study to be pursued.

Most officers, especially those who are married, stay in Tokyo for the full four years with the exception of the time spent in travel, duty with a Japanese military organization or when away for the summer. Bachelor officers, however, frequently spend a long period of time, occasionally six months, living in the interior. There are advantages and disadvantages to either method chosen and each must be considered by the students individually.

Students are encouraged to travel about in Japan as much as possible. The railway fares are very low. Official leave is not required for travel in Japan or Korea.

During summer the climate of Tokyo is such that

The character as written hundreds of years ago.		*The character of today.*
山	YAMA or mountain. The idea was of a mountain with three peaks.	山
川	KAWA or river. Notice the stream.	川
⊙	HI or sun.	日
水	MIZU or water. Notice the resemblance to river.	水
木	KI or tree. Note the branches and the roots.	木
女	ONNA or woman. Note the resemblance to a woman carrying a bundle —the usual fate of women in primitive times.	女
子	KO or child.	子
火	HI or fire. Note the flames rising.	火
馬	UMA or horse. In the old character the legs, mane and tail can be plainly recognized.	馬
鳥	TORI or bird.	鳥

intensive study, especially for those who have been in Japan concentrating on language study for over a year, is practically impossible. There are easily accessible mountain and seashore resorts close to Tokyo where cottages may be rented at a fair price rental which most officers will find within their incomes if managed properly.

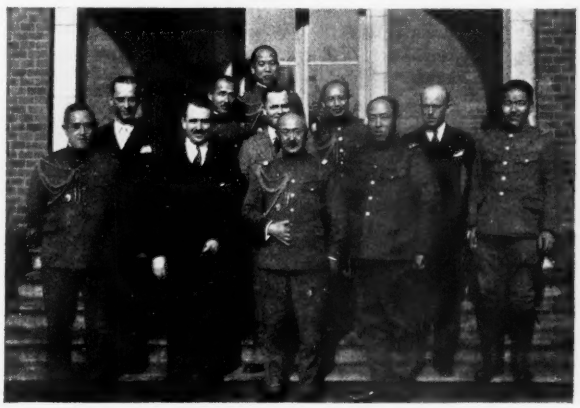
Sports

Some form of exercise should be indulged in while studying Japanese. In Tokyo there is a large tennis club with which officers may affiliate at special diplomatic terms. There are many beautiful walks in and around Tokyo. Golf is possible at Karuizawa, a mountain resort, in summer. Mountain climbing, hunting, skiing and skating can be had within five or six hours from Tokyo. Some students go to the Y.M.C.A. in Tokyo for handball or swimming. However the new American Embassy has a very nice pool which will be available in 1932. Members of the diplomatic Corps in Japan (which would include student officers) are permitted to ride horses of the imperial stables at specified times. Polo was started at the Japanese Cavalry School by a former language student and games are sometimes arranged between teams representing the School and the members of the diplomatic Corps in Tokyo. Good mounts are extremely scarce, however.

Amusements

There are no presentations of the legitimate drama in Tokyo in English except for the rather high standard of amateur productions of the Tokyo Amateur Dramatic Club. However there are several good theatres presenting "talkies" of the latest vintage. At present building is a talkie theatre which when completed will compare favorably with some of our own cinema temples. The Japanese are rapidly becoming adept in the production of "revues," in Japanese of course, but which are done in the foreign manner. These are rather interesting, especially to those of the students who are fairly advanced in the language. The native drama known as Kabuki, may also be interesting to advanced students. Among the Kabuki plays, however, the more modern ones are likely to have the greatest appeal to foreigners. Few care for the "judo" as an exhibition (known to Americans as "jiu jitsu") which is made extremely dull by experts, strange as it may seem. The defense is so good that the spectacular holds of "judo," from the viewpoint of the spectator, are seldom seen. "Sumo," the form of wrestling popular with Japanese, seems like so much pushing and tugging from the foreign point of view and is not very interesting in our eyes.

Baseball is probably the most popular sport in Japan. However professionalism has not as yet entered the game to a great extent, hence the best games or the Japanese World's Series are the Six-Team University League matches and the annual Waseda-Keio matches. The latter two teams, even tho they do not win the championship, attract the largest crowds. This match, in fact a series of three games, might easily be compared to the interest of Americans in the Army and Navy football game. The Meiji Stadium has been enlarged to accommodate 60,000 persons, but proves insufficient when the Keio-Waseda matches are played. The fall of 1931 saw the coming of the big league stars, Cochrane, Grove, Simmons, Gehrig, Frisch, O'Doul, etc., who played the best teams in Japan a series of games. As yet the Japanese have developed only one or two pitchers who could hold the big leaguers down to a reasonable score, but they field and run bases with the best of them. The main criticisms of the big leaguers were lack of hitting power, hustle and judgment in plays, but they praised the Japanese very highly notwithstanding. Quite naturally the games were well attended, especially in Tokyo where tickets were at a premium. There should be another visit in 1932, certainly one in 1933.



Group of American Officers and Japanese Officers of the General Staff

Most of the big stars of the concert world come to Tokyo including European stars who seldom visit America. Galli-Curci, Heifetz, Paderewski and many others appear here regularly.

The radio broadcasting is mostly in Japanese and of no especial interest to foreigners except students who listen in for the practice it gives them in Japanese. However occasionally there is an evening of foreign music by the Tokyo Symphony Orchestra. The latter organization also gives concerts.

Social

Officer students are on the Diplomatic List and are usually invited, with their wives, to the larger official affairs. To what extent an officer goes about socially in Tokyo is largely dependent upon his pay and personal inclinations. The requirements of study, too, do not permit of wide social participation for the first year or so. The officer himself will usually be the best judge of the amount of social participation he desires after he arrives in Japan.

A certain amount of association with foreigners is however, in the opinion of the writer, not only desirable but essential. The idea that some may shut themselves off from all intercourse and plunge into desperate study is a mistaken one, I believe. While such seclusion may give an initial advantage it is certain to cause the too diligent hermit to become "fed-up" long before his tour of duty is completed. It is easy to get into

very strange states of mind in the Orient, or for that matter, wherever one is completely divorced from his usual surroundings, and this fact should be borne in mind by the student or prospective one.

The language students are always invited to the following official parties given by the Imperial Household Department:

New Year's Presentation at the Palace.

Cherry Blossom Party at the Shinjuku Palace.

Chrysanthemum Party at the Shinjuku Palace.

The Imperial Household Minister's Reception at the Hama Detached Palace.

Contact with Japanese

Contact at first with Japanese will be limited to teachers, servants, shopkeepers and the Japanese employes at the Embassy. It is extremely difficult to keep up relations with Japanese who will be a help to you in your study of the language. The officer student will find that, for the most part, the ones that he will meet will all speak good if not perfect English, or if that is not the case, will want to improve their English at his expense. This will not discourage the energetic officer, however, for there are many Japanese of the type that he wants to meet and talk to who do not speak English, however few they may seem the first six months or so that the officer is in Japan. Some officers make arrangements with university students to exchange conversational practice on an hour for hour basis.

The Military Attaché arranges from time to time stag parties to which Japanese officers of all grades are asked and if the officer student is adept contacts may be continued with these officers.

Cafés or "beer halls," as they are known among the language officers, probably belong under the three previous headings at once, viz., Sports, Amusements and Contact. There are the modern tea house and are rapidly displacing, if they have not already actually displaced, the geisha, at least in the affections of the modern youth. If not visited too often they are an excellent means of assisting the beginner in the Japanese language in helping him overcome the first timidity in speaking and in finding out just how the common terms are used. After all the time spent with the teacher, while highly instructive, is apt sometimes to have its limitations.

Tour of Duty with Japanese Military Organization

The Mission in the Japanese language study is "to acquire a working knowledge of the Japanese language." When the officer student has been in Japan about two and a half or three years he is then sent for a six months tour of duty with a Japanese military organization, usually outside of the city of Tokyo. This duty will, if anything, tell the student whether or not he has achieved his objective in the language, as one is in constant association with the officers of the regiment to which assigned and there is much mutual entertaining, especially immediately after arrival and reporting to the Regiment and just before departure back to Tokyo. The language officers usually improve greatly in fluency, and the ability to conduct a conversation with persons of any grade or station during this assignment, tho they are apt to forget the minor academic points acquired from books.

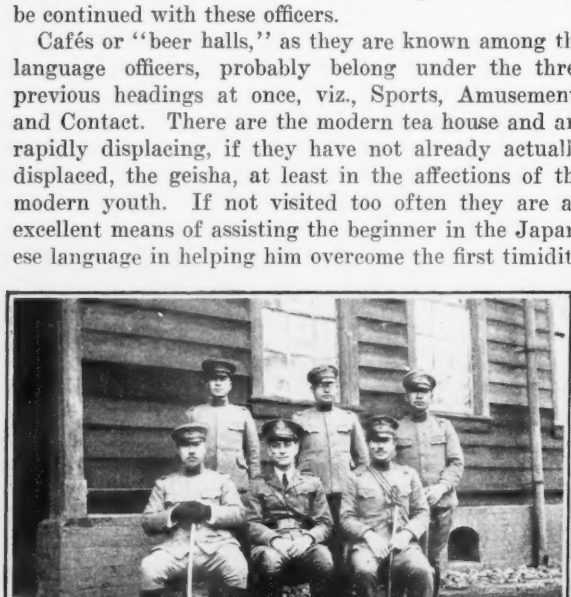
The Japanese Grand Maneuvers

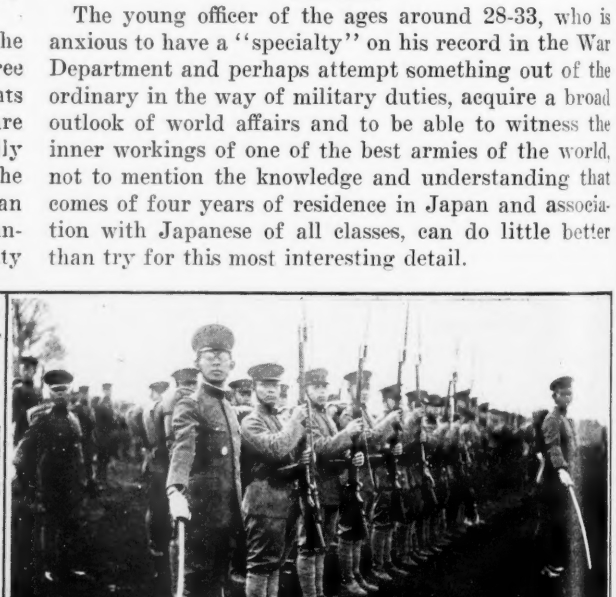
Generally officers are sent to the Japanese Grand Maneuvers to accompany the Military Attaché during the third or fourth years of their detail.

Toward the end of the language detail the officer students are required to spend a short time in the office of the Military Attaché, as determined by the A.C. of S., G-2-War Department, and the Military Attaché.

Conclusion

The young officer of the ages around 28-33, who is anxious to have a "specialty" on his record in the War Department and perhaps attempt something out of the ordinary in the way of military duties, acquire a broad outlook of world affairs and to be able to witness the inner workings of one of the best armies of the world, not to mention the knowledge and understanding that comes of four years of residence in Japan and association with Japanese of all classes, can do little better than try for this most interesting detail.





Left:—Lieut. Weckerling and Officers of the Machine Gun Company, the Infantry School, Chiba, Japan. Right:—Prince Chichibu, Heir Presumptive to the Imperial Throne, Commanding his Company in the 1932 Tokyo Review. The Prince is a Captain, a Recent Graduate of the Staff School.

Kosciuszko the Patriot—Father of American Artillery

By Elizabeth Camille Brink, Military Intelligence Division, General Staff

THIS year that marks the 200th anniversary of the birth of the Father of Our Country, marks also the name of a great Polish Colonial patriot, Tadeusz Kosciuszko, whose name will be associated with George Washington and the founding of the American Republic as long as our history endures. More than a century has passed since he died in exile, an impoverished and broken-hearted failure, yet the American soldier and citizen still thrills to the name of Kosciuszko, whose gallant and useful services in the American Army during the Revolutionary War have been credited at different times with saving the American cause. And the American artillery man as he sends fire data to his battery from his O.P. may well pause to pay honor and respect to Kosciuszko—the Father of American Artillery.

A worn and faded manual which now reposes in the Library of Congress at Washington is the testimonial of his services to the artillery. The "Maneuvers of Horse Artillery" adapted to the service of the United States was prepared by Kosciuszko at Paris in 1800, at the request of General William R. Davie, then American Minister to France. Translated by Colonel Jonathan Williams eight years later, a copy of the manual was presented to President Jefferson, who despite his ideas of peaceable coercion had nevertheless the foresight to realize that a time might come when the field artillery manual would speak in eloquent terms. That time was near at hand. In 1812 the United States and Great Britain were at war, and with no system of artillery instructions except those prepared by Kosciuszko. The manual was then purchased from the West Point Philosophical Society for $200 and the "exercises for cannon" and "maneuvers for horse artillery" were officially distributed to the service by the War Department with the now time-worn formula "for the information and guidance of all concerned." Kosciuszko may not have looked into the future and penetrated all the mysteries of range-finding, antiaircraft, and airplane observation, yet even an honor graduate of Fort Sill, poring over the musty pages of the manual, will see in Kosciuszko a kindred soul—a true artilleryman, who was proud to make a little easier the path of the infantry, then as now the "Queen of Battles."

Fortune placed Kosciuszko in his early life in a variety of situations. The younger son of a poor but noble Lithuanian family he was educated to be a military engineer and became a star graduate of the Royal Academy at Warsaw. Through scholarships awarded him he was permitted to study for five years in the institutions of learning of the principal European capitals where advanced study in military engineering gave him a position of eminence in his chosen profession, with which later he was to distinguish himself so brilliantly in the greatest services he rendered to Washington and the Continental Army—the field military engineering and fortification.

Hardly had Kosciuszko finished his education when he became imbued with the cause of liberty, of fighting for a freedom denied his own country. Turn back the pages of history one hundred and fifty-six years, to the year of 1776. It is the time of the great American revolution. The soldier pioneers are streaming through the passes—up the Shenandoah Valley, through Virginia and Pennsylvania and on to Philadelphia "the City of Brotherly Love." Through the mountains, by wagon, train, by flatboat, by horse, and afoot they came, not forgetting their rifles. Washington had blazed the trail. In Philadelphia the American soldier was first to know the beloved Polish patriot, who, impelled by his hatred of oppression and ardor for the cause of liberty, had, upon learning in Paris of the struggle between Britain and her North American colonies, hastened across the Atlantic and associated himself with the gallant patriots of our revolutionary period. "I have come," said he, presenting himself to Washington at Philadelphia, "to fight for the cause of American independence." He was the first of the noted galaxy of foreign officers who volunteered for the cause of the Colonies and to join the armies of Washington.

The highly trained technician arrived at a time of great moment. His first service was to fortify Philadelphia—at that time one of the vital nerve centers of the new-born republic, against attack by the British fleet. For this vital contribution Congress awarded him the rank of colonel in the Engineering Corps. His next assignment was with Gates' army of the North in 1777. This was the beginning of a dark period for Washington's Army. With little clothing and poor food, and having suffered one defeat after another, the army learned that General Burgoyne was coming down through New York from the north. Having demonstrated his ability in the fortification of Philadelphia, Kosciuszko was now commissioned to devise a plan for the defense of Saratoga and to check the British advance. He fortified Bemis Heights. Burgoyne's force was crushed by the Americans in the Saratoga Valley and hope flamed anew in the American colonies. The successful operations which led to the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, and the part which Kosciuszko played in this battle reveals his inestimable worth to the Continental Army. It was the turning point in the War—for a victory by Burgoyne at that time might easily have brought in its wake complete defeat

and placed an entirely new face upon subsequent world history. General Gates acknowledged his indebtedness in his official report to Congress, and Washington at the time reporting the value of his work stated: "Kosciuszko is a gentleman of science and merit." Jefferson credits Kosciuszko with selecting the position from which the Americans fought, and with covering its weak point with redoubts from the hill to the river.

Kosciuszko

This victory put new heart into both the civilians and soldiers of the Revolution, at a vital time when reverses rather than victories were the rule. Following this decisive and victorious engagement of our history, the independence of the United States was recognized by many European powers, though the War still continued.

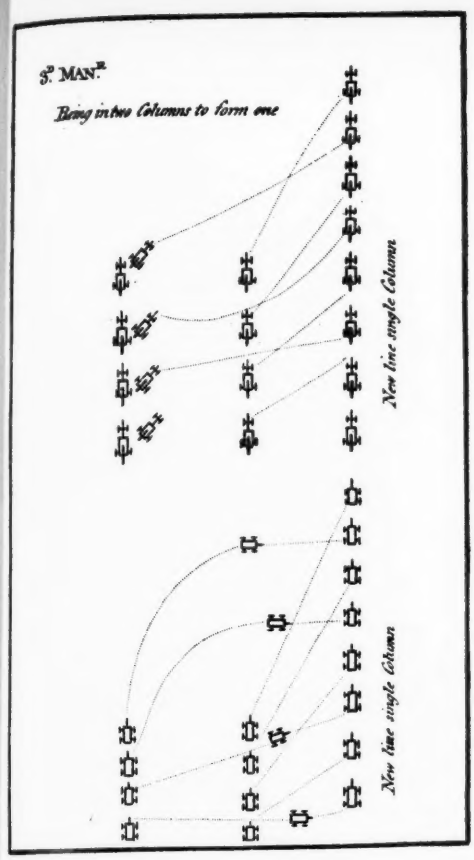
Historians point to Kosciuszko's greatest achievement in the War for American independence, in his fortification of West Point on the Hudson—whose site he is supposed to have chosen, and where years afterwards a monument was erected to his memory as "the hero of two worlds." West Point then controlled the main line of communication from New England south to the central and southern colonies. The importance of its fortification was that the Hudson River was the only route by which the British could operate with troops from Canada and New York. Hence, it was a position regarded by Washington as indispensable. But Kosciuszko pushed up the fortifications rapidly and in 1778 the gigantic task was completed and West Point was impregnable. He also laid out additional forts to protect West Point in case British forces were sent from New York. Washington again recognizing his merit says in a dispatch: "To his care and sedulous appreciation, the American people are indebted for the defenses of West Point."

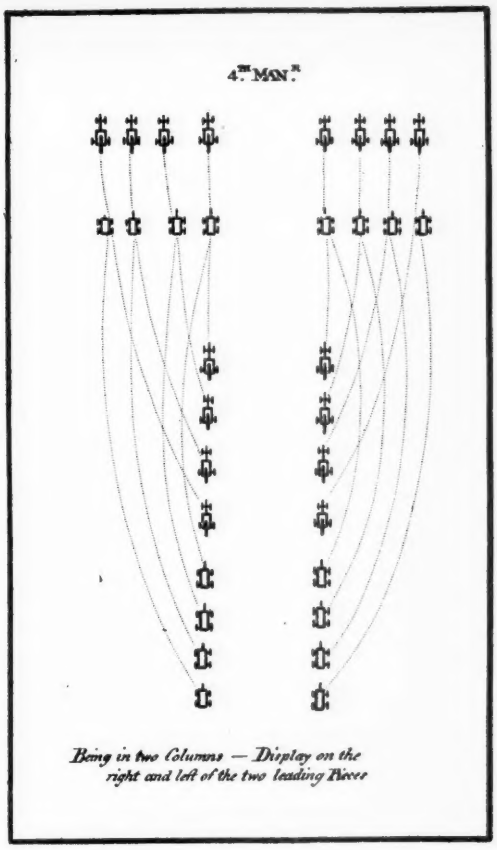
Kosciuszko was now made engineer in the Army of the South in 1780, with Washington's most valued and trusted officer, General Nathaniel Greene, in command. Later, Kosciuszko succeeded Laurens in charge of military intelligence. His service in the south covered virtually the whole range of modern Staff work—from supply to operations and troop movements. At those times when war often became guerilla warfare, the brilliant Kosciuszko, despite his rank, fought with the rest as a common soldier. His devised means for rapid movement of troops and provisions, in the way of improvised pontoon bridges often served as means of escape for the American columns retreating from Cornwallis and the King's forces. "His zeal for public service seems incomparable" wrote Greene of the young Polish engineer.

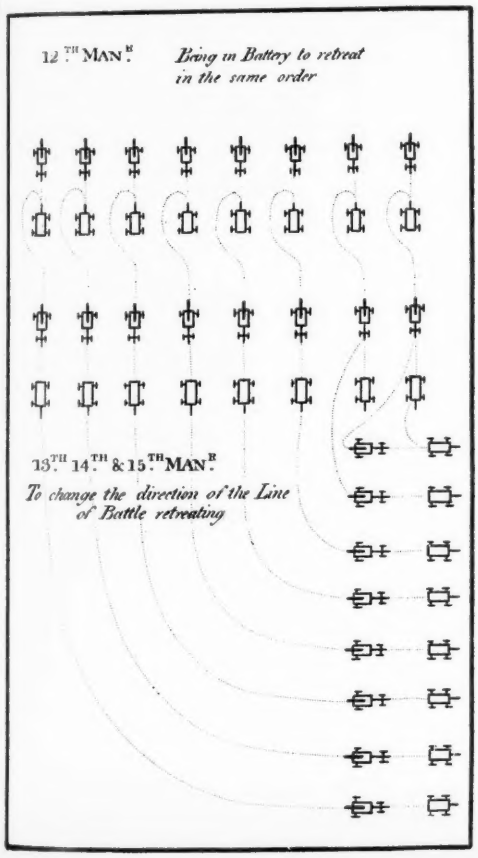
He remained in the south until the end of the war. When the United States became a reality Congress passed a resolution: "That the Secretary of War transmit to Kosciuszko the brevet commission of Brigadier General, and signify to that officer that Congress entertains a high sense of his loyal, fruitful and meritorious services." A spot of land where Columbus, Ohio now stands was also designated to him; and he was one of the three distinguished foreigners to be elected as member of the "Society of the Cincinnati" established in 1783. But Kosciuszko, unwilling to accept payment for his services to America, willed the money and lands offered to him to Thomas Jefferson. The famous document that Kosciuszko left with Jefferson at Philadelphia reveals the strength and noble purity of the principles of liberty in the heart of the Pole. Having seen slavery in all its phases in the south he foresaw a broader scope of human freedom in America, the goal of liberty extending to all peoples. Kosciuszko's will stands out as a flaming torch lighting the path of human progress.

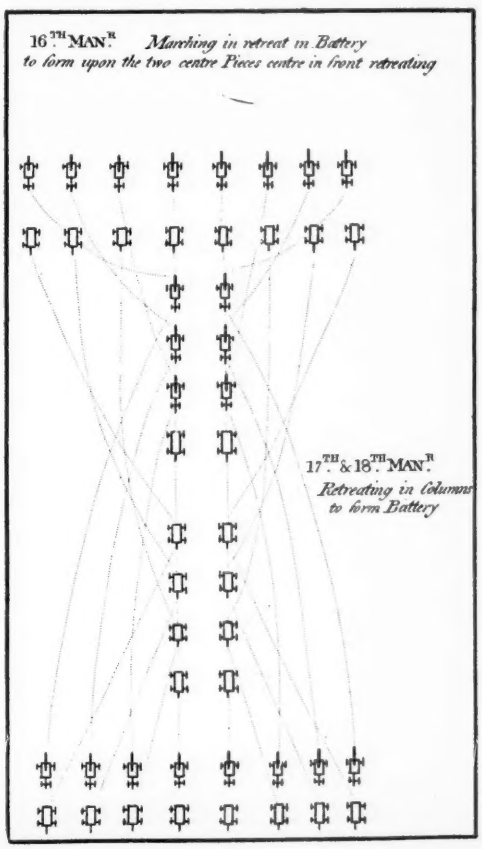
> "I, Tadeusz Kosciuszko, being just on my departure from America, do hereby declare and direct that, should I make no other testimentary disposition of my property in the United States, I hereby authorize my friend, Thomas Jefferson, to employ the whole thereof in purchasing negroes from among his own slaves, or any others, and giving them liberty in my name; in giving them an education in trade or otherwise; in having them instructed for their new condition in the duties of morality, which may make them good neighbors, good fathers and mothers, husbands and wives, in their duty as citizens, teaching them to be defenders of their liberty and country, of the good order of society, and in whatsoever may make them happy and useful; and I make the said Thomas Jefferson executor of this.
>
> 5th of May, 1798 T. Kosciuszko."

Of Kosciuszko, Jefferson wrote: "He is as pure a son of liberty as I have ever known, and of that liberty which is to go to all, and not to the few and rich alone." These qualities and nobility of character later


3d MAN.R
Being in two Columns to form one
New line single Column
New line single Column


4TH MAN.R
Being in two Columns — Display on the right and left of the two leading Pieces


12TH MAN.R
Being in Battery to retreat in the same order
13TH 14TH & 15TH MAN.R
To change the direction of the Line of Battle retreating


16TH MAN.R
Marching in retreat in Battery to form upon the two centre Pieces centre in front retreating
17TH & 18TH MAN.R
Retreating in Columns to form Battery

brought him to a high place in Poland, where he continued as the idol long after the cause he so valiantly fought for was lost.

In America, Kosciuszko saw the genesis of an experiment which later was to prove of great value to him in Poland. The valiant struggle for independence of the ill-equipped colonial farmers and their success against one of the best trained armies in the world, led the Polish patriot to visualize a day when his own peasant population might successfully throw off the foreign yoke and build up a national life of their own. Kosciuszko made a noble attempt to realize this dream. Confirmed and strengthened in his ideals by his association with Washington and those who fought for American independence, when Kosciuszko returned to his native land he was soon to play a more conspicuous part in the cause of liberty. In 1791, the attempt to resist the tyrannical Russia, and to free Poland from despotic and deadening influences which that power so long exercised over her destinies, called forth the most gallant effort in the life of the noble Polish patriot. His conduct at this time was such as to merit the everlasting esteem of his countrymen and of the world.

The voice of Kosciuszko, calling upon his countrymen to deliver their land from a servile yoke, raised the whole Polish nation in arms. His proclamation for liberty breathed a spirit of patriotic self-devotion which rekindled a sympathetic feeling in every land. The simple peasants awakened to their first feeling of national consciousness rallied round him. Exchanging the implements of husbandry for the implements of war, the soldiers inspired also the peasantry, who, arming themselves with pikes and scythes, rushed fearlessly upon the cannoneers of the north and carried their batteries of artillery.

One incident which sheds great glory upon Kosciuszko was the attack against the Prussian army. An army of 40,000 soldiers of the warlike Frederick and commanded by Frederick William in person was advancing upon Warsaw. With 15,000 men, Kosciuszko attacked this formidable army in a long and bloody engagement. Though the Prussian army was not driven from the field, the object of the attack was gained, for so great was the setback given to the Prussians and so small the loss to Kisciuszko's forces that Kosciuszko was further enabled to cut to pieces the Russian forces encamped near Warsaw and to establish himself in a position to defend the city. In the meantime Kosciuszko had organized a successful war of diversion in southern Prussia, which caused Frederick William to withdraw his army for protection of his own dominions. But fortune, which had thus far followed his banner as he long successfully resisted the concentrated attack of an overwhelming Russian force, was soon to desert him and Poland; for single-handed and alone Poland could not contend with the colossal power of Russia aided by the disciplined Prussian armies. In the end the army and purposes of Kosciuszko were defeated when in a later battle he fell covered with wounds, and with him fell the hopes of Poland, whose national existence was soon extinguished and whose territory was divided among the conquerors. His failure remains one of the most noble and tragic struggles for national freedom.

Revenging herself for the frequent defeat of her armies the Empress Catherine of Russia imprisoned Kosciuszko. He was confined in a dungeon and set at liberty only after her death. High honors were offered him by the young Czar to enter the Russian service, but he declined and became an exile from his country. The wounds from which he never recovered, which made it almost impossible for him to walk, did not deter him from revisiting his friends in America in 1797, where he was acclaimed as a true friend of the Republic which he called his second fatherland. It was here he left his famous will with Jefferson. In 1817, at the age of 71, he died in a Swiss village where he lived with some friends. His body was removed in great state to Cracow, where it was buried in the cathedral by the side of Polish Kings.

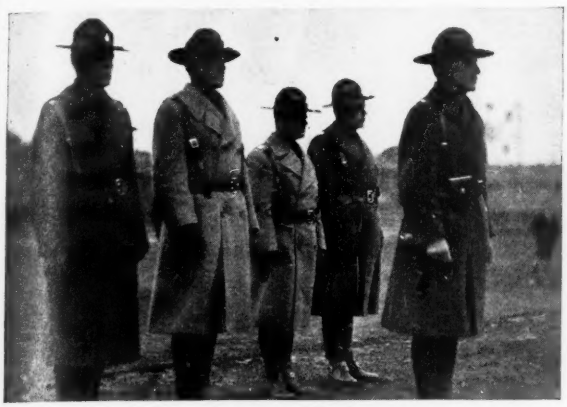
And so in this year of grace 1932, when we celebrate the birth of the Father of Our Country, and recall the stirring events of 1776, when America, a frontier country, had not yet come of age; let the lofty patriotic Kosciuszko not be forgotten. As we come to the present, there is no measure by which we can weigh the services of the noble Pole to our nation. To name a few of his services to our army and nation is not enough. It explains in part why we honor and revere him at this present time. But there is a further reason. The name of Kosciuszko represents the character of achievement that we all admire. It embodies and visualizes that for which all America stands. The years that followed his service to America and brought his whole life to bear upon his own national problems reveals a sureness and courage, and a clear, courageous grasp of the essentials of freedom. The new trail that he struck for the common people of his own country has been followed with a procession of ideals that have led them up to, and opened the gates to the present united Republic of Poland.

Brilliant and dazzling as were the battles gained and the feats of armies routed, they fall into insignificance when one speaks of the superior and ennobling virtues which adorned the character and immortalized the name of Kosciuszko. His generous self-devotion in the cause of liberty, his constancy of purpose to principles which guided his conduct, were surpassed only by the purity of principle and uprightness of intention which dictated them. He combined the qualities of heart which most exalt the human character with the qualities of mind requisite to the happiness of man and country.

Throughout history his name will remain as a symbol of liberty. Outside the city of Cracow an imposing monument bears only this supremely eloquent inscription, "Kosciuszko, the Friend of Washington." Close by the White House in the Capital of our nation, Washington, another memorial symbolic of his lofty patriotism reads, "And Freedom Shrieked as Kosciuszko Fell."

A Neutral Observer At Shanghai

I ARRIVED at Shanghai late in February and had an early opportunity to talk with various officials of the Nationalist Government. The impression I got from them was that they were highly gratified by the success of the Chinese 19th Army in withstanding the offensive action of the Japanese military and naval



COLONEL L. D. GASSER AND REGIMENTAL STAFF
Left to Right: **D. M. N. Ross, Adjutant; Lt. Col. G. A. Lynch, Executive Officer; Captain Harry Adamson, Intelligence Officer; Captain E. H. Conner, Plans and Training Officer.**

forces at Shanghai which had recently taken place and was continuing. I asked if what had taken place at Shanghai would tend to unite China in support of the Nationalist Government, and the Chinese officials, with one exception, told me that it certainly would.

I met several Chinese ladies of position and intelligence who were taking an active part in Red Cross work, organizing hospitals, caring for the wounded, etc. I saw several truck loads of wounded being brought to one of their hospitals.

I had an opportunity soon to visit the sector held by the Americans. Colonel Gasser, commanding the 31st Infantry of the American Army, had done excellent work in organizing this sector and strengthening it, not only for repelling attacks but also for protecting his men. He had given rigid orders to prevent firing and altogether, in my opinion, is simply splendid. The regiment has made a fine impression, the behavior and appearance of the men being excellent. It is most unfortunate, however, that they have had to wear old heavy O. D. uniforms evidently left over from the World War stock.

The American infantry holds a sector facing the Chapei area of the city where the Japanese have been unable to make any advance whatever. The Japanese join the American on the right, and the American Marines join them on the left? The Marine sector extending to and joining with the British on their left.

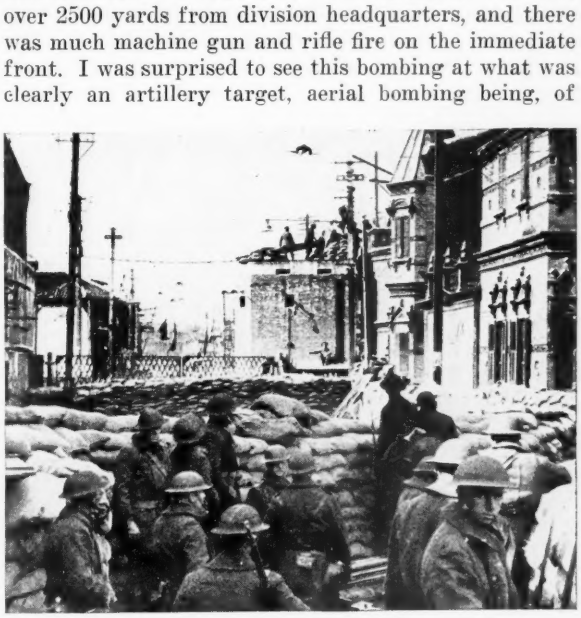
When I visited the lines, rifle and machine gun fire was being carried on almost continuously immediately in front of the sector, but this fire was directed to the flank against the Japanese, and not against the American. During the night there was some intermittent shelling, mainly carried on by the Chinese against Japanese points of importance.

At daybreak on the morning of the 24th, I went to visit the Japanese front north of Shanghai and between that city and the Woosung forts at the mouth of the river.

It appears that the Japanese, having been unable to advance through the Chapei District without incurring heavy losses, had decided to drive through the Chinese left, making the main effort with their right, but that their attack had resulted in but limited success, the Chinese having made a surprisingly effective resistance. The Japanese line was thus bent back to the Woosung forts on the right, or north.

After about an hour's drive by car I reached the headquarters of General Uyeda, commanding the Japanese forces, and had an interview with him.

At that time the Japanese air service was bombing, with over 200 pound bombs, what appeared to be a Chinese center of resistance in a suburban town not over 2500 yards from division headquarters, and there was much machine gun and rifle fire on the immediate front. I was surprised to see this bombing at what was clearly an artillery target, aerial bombing being, of



International News Photos, Inc.
31st Infantry Troops in Position

course, an exceedingly expensive and inefficient method for use against such targets.

General Uyeda's force consists of a reinforced division, including three infantry brigades, a battalion or more of mountain artillery, a battalion of field artillery about 70 mm. and a battalion of 5.9 howitzers.

He also has a little cavalry. The General said that he had met with unexpectedly stiff resistance from Chinese forces on his right.

Headquarters was established in what appeared to be an old farm building. A message center was going with much talking on the six or seven telephones in use. In a corner several officers were studying an airplane mosaic. Others were looking at maps and the General, with his Chief of Staff (a major general) and one other officer, was at the table in a small alcove over which a tent was pitched, the roof of the house probably being leaky.

A military funeral, attended by several companies of infantry, was taking place near the Division Headquarters.

All the equipment that I saw was excellent, as were also the uniforms. The men were of splendid physique, but they impressed me very much as being listless. This may have been due to the weather, which was cold with a biting wind, but more probably it was because of their lack of success against the Chinese.

The consensus of opinion at Shanghai is that the Japanese have fallen far short of what was expected of them. It is certain that the marines and sailors, when they attempted to take Chapei, were driven back in a hurry by the Chinese. That, of course, was street fighting, which is very difficult.

I was told that the Japanese naval fire has been inferior and that their troops cannot shoot well. The terrain is perfectly flat, and observation consequently is poor. I saw no balloons. I had heard that the Japanese were going to use smoke tactically. I did not see any being used, but it was hardly necessary, as the whole view was obstructed by smoke from burning farms and villages. I was told that some of the airplane bombs in striking the ground had failed to explode. My informant offered to show me a large dud nearly buried in the ground, but I did not have time to go and see it.

Photo by U. S. Recruiting Bureau
Soochow Creek

After leaving the Japanese Headquarters, I returned to Shanghai and then proceeded to the Chinese front. The General in command was not to be found at his headquarters. I was much interested in the Chinese troops and talked to a number of the infantrymen. Most of them seemed to be men of nineteen or twenty

The U. S. S. Pittsburgh at Shanghai

or even younger, some mere boys being among them. They were poorly equipped, not well uniformed, but their morale was exceedingly high, due doubtless to the success so far attained and to the fact that for the first time perhaps they are now receiving rations and pay and are the heroes of the hour. Apparently it is the opinion of all in the 19th Chinese Army that they have gained a signal victory over the Japanese. As this is the first time in modern history that this has happened, the high morale is easy to explain.

Some observers have always maintained that, if properly trained, equipped and led, the Chinese would make good soldiers. They have developed fairly good methods in using railroad artillery and seem to know how to utilize a defensive organization in depth so that the troops do not present much of a target but are able, when the Japanese advance, to develop machine gun and rifle fire upon them and even to mix it up with them with hand-grenades and the bayonet. Many of the wounded had bayonet wounds, so I was told by a Chinese Red Cross worker.

I saw a very ingenious system of machine gun defense in which the grave mounds with which the country is dotted were used for gun emplacements. The works were invisible from the air and nearly so from the ground. The man I talked with said they did

not fear the aerial bombing, because the Japanese could not hit them.

My opinion with respect to the situation was that the Japanese, while awaiting reinforcements from Japan, were consolidating the rather slight gains in ground they had made and were preparing to attack with the intention of smashing the left of the Chinese and driving them to the southwest. Their reinforcements of a division were expected to arrive at Shanghai in a few days.

The 19th Chinese Army had also been reinforced so that the Chinese then had a force estimated at nearly 60,000 as opposed to the Japanese total of 20,000. It was clear that the Japanese were much in need of their expected reinforcements.

I understand that they were somewhat surprised when they attacked what they thought was the Chinese left, to find other Chinese troops still further to the north and on their own flank. The forts at Woosung were, when I left, still held by a few Chinese infantry, and were in the right rear of the Japanese. I thought I could see Chinese infantry infiltrating towards the Japanese right rear as we passed Woosung going out, and the forts were then under bombardment.

I did not have the opportunity to observe the use of tanks by the Japanese. There are quite a few canals, but otherwise the ground is suitable. The use of gas by the Japanese would have done the trick, as the Chinese have no protection against it. I was told that the Japanese were getting from five to ten thousand gas masks. This would indicate that they intended to use gas. Probably they were holding its use in reserve as an extreme measure.

Experience here gives recent confirmation to our conclusions that tenacious infantry cannot be shot out of a position.

Courtesy of *The New York National Guardsman*

A Provisional Intelligence Section

By Major Eustis L. Hubbard, Unit Instructor, 308th Cavalry

IN February, 1932, when the newspapers and magazines were filled with accounts of the fighting at Shanghai, a number of Reserve Officers in Pittsburgh who were interested, organized a provisional G-2 section to follow events in China and Manchuria, and to take advantage of what appeared to be a splendid opportunity for the S-2's of the various reserve units to get some practice in the duties they must perform if called to active duty.

In the conventional problem on combat intelligence the student must, before he can arrive at a logical solution, "Think himself into the situation," as the saying is. In this exercise the participants were furnished daily with accounts of actual fighting, at the other side of the world it is true, but made vivid with actual photographs from the scene of action, and their interest was intensified by the presence in the combat area of our own infantry and marines. We even knew accurately where our own troops were stationed and were able to show their location on the map.

Major W. A. Kimble, Infantry Reserve, and Colonel Samuel J. Taylor, Infantry Reserve, were active in promoting interest in the project, and Major Kimble was appointed acting G-2, 99th Division.

A roster of all available interested officers was prepared, which showed the name, organization, address, and telephone number of each, as well as the date and hour on which his business would permit him to come to 310 Westinghouse Building to take his turn at preparing a daily report. If for business reasons any officer who was detailed was unable to be present, he called Major Kimble, who from the roster selected a substitute and made the necessary adjustments, also by telephone. This system proved very flexible, even when there were as many as three substitutions in a single day.

When there were enough officers present, as there usually were, some prepared the work sheet and its resumé, while others prepared the daily overlay, to accompany the report, which in its final form was made out by the officer detailed to do so.

To the adjusted roster were added from time to time other names as additional officers became interested.

Each day, two or more officers assembled at headquarters, including at least one who had had some experience, and those who were to prepare the current report. At first a regular army instuctor assisted and coordinated the work; although later the Reserve Officers themselves took over the section and ran it.

From newspaper sources wall maps were prepared to which data were added after they had been evaluated by comparison of various news flashes, references, etc., available at the Carnegie Library and elsewhere.

The preparation of the situation map of the Shanghai area presented some interesting problems in map reading. Names of villages mentioned in dispatches were spelled in a variety of ways, while the location of important points such as Kiangwan, Tazang, Kiating and Liu-Ho had to be carefully checked from all available sources and transferred from maps and sketches with varying scales or with no scale to the situation map.

In order to avoid mistakes data were first entered on an overlay and finally transferred to the master map. Newspaper reproductions of oblique aerial photographs as well as sketches were useful, but here again the scales were distorted and it was necessary to adjust them from several directions.

Frequent reference to TR 190-10, (conventional signs) was necessitated, while in endeavoring to arrive at the probable organization and equipment of the opposing forces, our own C. & G. S. S. Tables of Organization proved useful. Few of the officers who prepared the reports departed without a more definite knowledge of the organization of our own Infantry Division, road spaces, and computation of time and space factors, than they had formerly possessed. The confusing nature of the newspaper accounts was for the purpose of instruction of actual value, since the necessity for careful evaluation of information and for careful confirmation of all data became apparent at once.

From the C. & G. S. S. pamphlet, "A Study of Combat Intelligence," the form for the G-2 Journal was prepared and mimeographed, so that newspaper clippings could be pasted in the column, "Incidents, Messages, Orders, etc.," A copy of this pamphlet was pinned to the map where it could be consulted when needed. Each participant in the exercise, before his turn came to prepare the report, secured a number of the forms for the journal and entered his clippings at home, the night before his report was due. From this journal he then prepared his work sheet, summarizing each paragraph in a resumé. Bringing his journal and work sheet to headquarters with him, usually during the lunch hour of the day on which he was detailed, he then prepared his formal report and an overlay showing the situation to date. A copy of the current report signed by its author was pinned to the map where it could be consulted by anyone who desired to do so, while pictures and extra clippings were pasted in a big scrap book which Colonel Taylor provided.

Particular emphasis was placed by the instructor upon the work sheet resumé, upon the evaluation of information, the confirmation of identifications, and the location of the opposing units, with the result that in many cases the forecast under "Probable intentions" was surprisingly accurate and confirmed by later events.

Brigadier General Edward Settle Godfrey

Born at Kalida, Putnam County, Ohio, October 9, 1843

Died at Cookstown, N. J., April 1, 1932

A grand cavalryman of the old school has passed on. Seldom, indeed, has the career of a typically military personality been so intimately identified with so many notable events as that of General Godfrey. His service spanned that period of our country's relatively most rapid and really phenomenal agrarian development, by and during which the wonderful West emerged from lawlessness. That greatest of all American evolutions was truly an ideally staged empire drama of adventure, of privation, of encounter, of conquest, and of settlement.

He therefore, was necessarily an actor in the popularly outstanding chapters of American history that treat of the early land lure and of the later gold and silver lures; of exploits of noted scouts; of achievements of the pony express; of thrills of the buffalo chase; of the give and take of outlawry and ruthless reprisal; of adventures and sacrifices of the overland coaches; of transcontinental railway victories over savage and beast and stubborn vasts of virgin domain. These chapters were of a period that brought forth whatever of the real man all its characters had. And, midst dangers both many and great, General Godfrey aided in running into and through all those chapters the fadeless line of Army blue.

And so it was that, in line of duty and by circumstances, he figured in some quite exceptional events, both of professional importance and of historic consequence; he contacted every kind of plains and mountain Indian this country knows; he was in forty Indian fights before he was ten years in the saddle; he participated in three of the greatest Indian campaigns of later history and was in their respective severest engagements. The first was at Washita River, Indian Territory, in 1868. The foe were Cheyennes, Arapahoes and Kiowas, led respectively by Chiefs Black Kettle, Little Raven and Satanta.

The second campaign referred to culminated at Little Big Horn River, Montana, when the gallant General George A. Custer and 265 officers and men of the fearless and feared Seventh Cavalry were victims of Chief Gall and his swarming Sioux. General (then First Lieutenant) Godfrey was in Major Benteen's command, was in the party first on the battle-field and first personally examined the slain commander, who had been shot in head and heart, but not mutilated in any way. During the long survival of that battle, he was frequently called on or referred to for related opinion, version or judgment, both by individuals and by the War Department, all of which entailed a large, though willingly borne, burden of correspondence.

The third battle was at Bear Paw Mountains, Montana, in 1877, when wily Chief Joseph and his disciplined Nez Perces were defeated and captured after a 300-mile pursuit and a six-day siege. Captain Godfrey received the brevet of Major and was awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor "for most distinguished gallantry in action against hostile Nez Perces Indians at Bear Paw Mountains, Montana, September 30th, 1877, in leading his command into action, where he was severely wounded." His white horse was killed under him, and he was badly injured by the resulting fall. But he was assisted to another mount, rejoined the dismounted troops and led them until very seriously shot. Both times he saw the Indian kneel, aim and fire.

Upon his own request, he was relieved from a Board on Drill Regulations in order to join his troop in the field against hostile Sioux in the Pine Ridge Campaign, engaging in the actions at Wounded Knee and Drexel Mission, Dakota, December 29-30, 1890.

When promoted Lieutenant Colonel, 12th Cavalry, in March, 1901, he had nearly thirty-four years of service in the 7th Cavalry. He had joined that regiment upon graduation from the Military Academy in 1867 and, consequently, very soon after the regiment's organization in 1866.

He was instructor in cavalry tactics at the Military Academy from 1879 to 1883.

During September and October, 1897, he was in command of troops from Forts Apache, Arizona, and Wingate, New Mexico, to arrest Zuni Indians who in performance of tribal ceremonies had committed murder. The objective was bloodlessly attained by boldness. Despite warnings, he went alone on foot to the village, impressed his views upon the head of the tribe and returned to camp to await developments. And that procedure was wholly vindicated the next day, when those wanted were delivered at the camp.

He was in command at Fort Duchesne, Utah, from April to October, 1898. Thereafter, he was stationed successively at Huntsville, Alabama; Macon, Georgia; Havana, Pinar del Rio, and Columbia Barracks, Cuba, Fort Sam Houston, Texas; Legaspi, San Pablo, and Iloilo, P. I.; Fort Walla Walla, Wash.

He commanded the Department of the Columbia in May and June, 1904, commanded the First Brigade, Maneuver Camp, American Lake, Washington, July, 1904, and was at Fort Riley, Kansas, commanding regiment, post and School of Application for Cavalry until January, 1907. On the last date, he was promoted Brigadier General. He then commanded the Department of the Missouri until retirement for age.

CALVIN P. GODFREY

Military Publications in the Mexican Army

By First Lieutenant C. C. Clendenen, Cavalry

THE publication, under government auspices, of no fewer than three military journals in Mexico is evidence of the keen desire of the Mexican officer to advance himself professionally and to bring the Mexican Army to the highest state of efficiency possible. The three, taken together, are designed to appeal to a wide circle of readers, from the highest senior officers to the newest recruit, and they are replete with material calculated to broaden the professional outlook of the Mexican Army.

Probably the most important of the three magazines is *La Revista del Ejército y de la Marina,* the official organ of the Ministry of War and Marine. It is the medium by which orders and proclamations to the service at large are published and it is the newspaper in which units of the army and navy may exchange items of interest. We are pleased to note, for example, that both the 12th and 30th Regiments of Cavalry, stationed respectively in Michoacán and Guerrero, are enthusiastically playing polo, while the former regiment has a baseball team of which it is quite proud.

La Revista del Ejército y de la Marina includes a section devoted to each arm of the service, a section of articles of general interest and a historical section. A glance at any issue should convince the American reader that Mexican military history contains a wealth of material which would well repay a little study. The reader cannot fail to be impressed by the number of articles translated from the French. In common with the armies of all Latin American countries, the Mexican Army seems to be more strongly influenced by French military thought and doctrine than by that of any other nation.

Recent issues of *La Revista del Ejército y de la Marina,* devote a considerable amount of space to our own experiments in mechanization. The September, 1931, issue contains a translation of an article which appeared in the INFANTRY JOURNAL of the Fort Eustis maneuvers, while the October issue contains a full translation of a press account of the same maneuver.

In the November-December issue, General Cristobal Rodriguez, the Director of the magazine, writes an editorial upon "The Revolutionary Army and the Progress of Our Country." General Rodriguez holds the view that not merely did the Army assure the success of the revolutionary ideals in battle but that the Army is at present an important factor in furthering the social and economic aims of the Government—a view which seems to be official in Mexico.

Consequently, the present day Mexican Army has a twofold mission; first, to prepare itself for battle against possible enemies of Mexico; second, to act as a school for numbers of people who are out of the reach of a more conventional educational system.

General Rodriguez touches upon the progress made in recent years in furtherance of the first of these missions. He believes that the present day Mexican Army is the most efficient the Republic has ever possessed. A Technical Commission, under the direction of General Salvador S. Sánchez, has produced various manuals of instruction, which together formulate a common doctrine of war for the entire Army.

Simultaneously with this, the Army has maintained over an hundred "Escuelas de Tropa," the function of which is the instruction of the rank and file of the Army. Throughout Mexico, the Army has been engaged in the construction and operation of schools, gymnasiums and public gardens.

The second of the Mexican military magazines is *El Intendente,* the official organ of the Department of Administration (Supply) and Accounts of the War Ministry. Its mission is to educate the army in the importance, organization, functions, and operation of the Administrative Department. The present government in Mexico is fully awake to the necessity of a smoothly working system of administration and supply in its armies. The lack of such a system in the past has been one of the greatest weaknesses of Mexican forces in the field—a weakness which the present régime is determined to cure.

In the third of the Mexican official military magazines, *El Soldado,* the Army expresses itself as an educational force in the social regeneration of the nation. The present Mexican government realizes that in its army it has a medium by which it can reach persons who cannot be reached by more orthodox schools, that the discharged soldier, returning to his home village can be a great force for either good or evil in the nation.

In furtherance of the idea that the Mexican Army must be an educational force in the nation, *El Soldado* contains numerous inspirational articles and numerous anecdotes of the heroes of Mexican history. Each issue stresses the necessity of the individual soldier improving himself by study and thought. In addition, every issue contains material of direct benefit in the improvement of the soldier's practical military knowledge. For example, the March, 1931, issue includes an illustrated article on the determination of the horse's age, while in another issue is a very clear and complete plate showing the nomenclature of the parts of the horse's hoof.

El Soldado is also the medium in which the soldier is encouraged to express himself, as the officer expresses himself in the pages of *La Revista del Ejército y de la Marina.* Numerous articles, verses and discussions by enlisted men bear evidence that the Mexican soldier takes a keen interest in the efforts of his government to improve his lot.

NOTES FROM THE CHIEF OF CAVALRY

The Leadership Test for Small Cavalry Units, 1931

THE Leadership Test for small cavalry units for 1931 was held at Fort Riley, Kansas, during the week beginning October 26th, and was won by a platoon of Troop E, 13th Cavalry, led by 1st Lieutenant Paul G. Kendall. Other platoons competing were from the 2nd Cavalry and the 14th Cavalry.

The division of the test into two phases; viz. an individual phase and a leadership phase, has proven more satisfactory in the past than any other scheme which could be devised and was continued in the 1931 test.

Each platoon was tested alone, but all took identical tests. Each was accompanied by an umpire throughout the leadership phase. Special umpires at each "control point" judged the efficiency of the platoons in the combat phase which took place at that point. At various points situations required mounted combat, reconnaissance of a village, special reconnaissance of a railroad, breaking camp during hours of darkness and night marching, and dismounted combat with ball ammunition.

The individual phase was given a weight one-fourth that of the leadership phase. In the leadership phase particular stress was laid on tactics throughout. The dismounted combat gave an excellent opportunity to judge the tactical ability and leadership of platoon and squad leaders and the *combat efficiency* of the platoon as a whole. The greatest weight was very properly placed upon the fire effect of the platoon as judged by the number of targets hit and the total number of hits.

Individual Phase

This phase was held on the first day of the test. The mounted course for the platoon leader and the troopers individually was over five miles, at 12 miles an hour, over natural and artificial obstacles of various sorts. Distributed along the course at unexpected points were seven pistol targets and six saber heads. At the end of the course the platoon leaders were required to run about one and one-quarter miles dismounted cross country.

Leadership Phase

This phase involved a march of 67 miles in 29 hours and varied tactical situations under simulated war conditions. Full field equipment, including ammunition was carried.

Situations at Control Points

a. Initiation of the March. A warning order to the effect that his platoon would march at 7:00 a. m. of a certain date on a reconnaissance mission was given each platoon leader at 9:00 p. m. on the day preceding his departure. At 6:30 a. m., the following day, at the troop picket line, the platoon commander was given his orders and maps.

The platoons were scored by the same umpire on their marching, adjustment of equipment, security, and orders.

b. Just before leaving the reservation the platoon was presented with a situation which would require mounted combat. Two rifle squads represented the enemy. Although the scheme of maneuver was slightly different in the various cases, each platoon handled the situation satisfactorily, with decision, good leadership, and proper dissemination of information secured.

c. About two miles south of Riley Center the platoon was met by two special umpires who judged the platoon on its reconnaissance of Riley Center, its marching and the watering of animals.

d. Several villages were reconnoitered en route, but, as it was not practicable to furnish a special umpire, no scoring was done. Upon completion of reconnaissance, the platoon leader was given a message by the umpire to the effect that an armored car platoon would take over the reconnaissance mission and that the platoon was to move into concealed bivouac and await further orders.

e. Halt for the Night. Three camp sites were available, a poor one too close to the road, another a sort of picnic grove and a third which offered fine concealment and security. No platoon selected the poor camp site. One went directly to the camp site with good security, and two hit upon the solution that the Board and special umpires felt was the best; to go into the grove, care for animals, cook supper, and then after dark move to the other bivouac. During the night the security of the camp was tested.

f. At 3:30 a. m. the platoons were ordered to clear camp at 5:00 a. m. and to arrive at Milford Gate at 10:00 a. m. This required breaking camp and marching in the dark for about one hour.

g. All platoons arrived on time at Milford Gate, where they were met by a special umpire for dismounted combat. This test was considered important and was purposely made difficult. The ground was rough, and the targets, except the first group, were indistinct.

The leadership and marksmanship of the winning platoon were particularly good in this problem. The day was quite cloudy and dark, and the targets of the third group were hardly visible with field glasses. This platoon hit nineteen of the twenty targets.

Later the platoon was ordered to cover a withdrawal.

h. Upon return to Fort Riley, the horses were inspected and scored by the veterinary umpire.

The test was very successfully accomplished and demonstrated once more the value of this sort of training.

Professional Notes and Discussion

Why Is Cavalry Still Necessary?*

By Lieut. Gen. G. Brandt, Retired, Formerly Chief of Cavalry, German Army

BEFORE replying to the question as to whether cavalry will in modern armies still be employed, there must first be explained what modern cavalry looks like, what it does and what can be required of it.

The cavalry of the period preceding the Great War, armed only with carbines and lances, has disappeared. Its place has been taken by a mounted machine gun organization equipped with all sorts of light and heavy firearms, just as infantry. Fire combat is its main method of fighting.

What has caused all countries to reorganize their cavalry in this manner? The realization that the great mobility of cavalry alone, if not combined with a greater fighting power, is useless. The final purpose of every movement is combat. Of what use is the most perfect and the swiftest ride, if cavalry, owing to lack of fighting power, is not able to attain the main objective, success in battle? While, before the World War, the fire power of a cavalry regiment was about equal to that of two infantry companies, now it is equal to that of one infantry battalion. In combination with its mobility a cavalry regiment is even superior to a battalion, and there must be taken into account that a battalion comprises three rifle companies, whereas a cavalry regiment has four field squadrons. In the appraisement of cavalry as against infantry a great change has occurred owing to this fact.

As with other arms, so also with cavalry, a new enemy has appeared on the scene in the shape of the armored car, as long as, owing to a lack of proper understanding, no use of it is made also by cavalry. Modern cavalry without armored cars is nowadays unthinkable. However, it is not the purpose of this article to investigate to what extent cavalry should be provided with motorized armored cars.

Airmen and armored cars have relieved cavalry of distant reconnaissance. But when it is necessary to explore a terrain lying closer and to comb it finer, mounted reconnaissance cannot be dispensed with.

All countries are holding the same view, namely, that the bulk of the cavalry should be kept together in independent, mobile formations, and that infantry divisions should be given only so much cavalry as they absolutely need for their purposes. The standard of assignment of cavalry to infantry divisions oscillates between one and three squadrons reinforced by bicyclists, heavy machine guns and armored cars. The main mission of this cavalry consists in reconnaissance work and security service within the zone of its infantry division. Thus far no country has seen fit to renounce assignment of cavalry to infantry divisons. Even the expected perfection of a light armored reconnaissance car will hardly change anything in this matter. The armored car, in spite of its many and big advantages, will in certain points always remain an opportunity weapon, which will be unable to overcome the numerous terrain difficulties in the same manner as a horseman. It cannot be used for night reconnaissance, as the noise of its motor betrays it.

Independent army cavalry in the hands of the higher commanders constitutes a very mobile, hard hitting body of troops used mostly for tasks where the mobility of infantry is not adequate.

These tasks may require an attack or a defense. If it is a purely defensive problem, then the army cavalry would not be used, as the task in question could be performed also by infantry in automobiles or by bicyclists. They have a great marching speed, but are confined to roads, and in battle they possess the mobility of infantry, which would suffice for defense. But for a delaying action mobility would not suffice. The drawback of their inability to secure themselves independently on the march to a battle can be put up with in an emergency, if they are to be employed only where the important thing is to block quickly a hole and to prevent the enemy from breaking through a line.

For tasks taking them far from their own army units in connection with a distant reconnaissance or security service, and also for attack, they can be used only jointly with army cavalry. The main burden will have to be assumed in this connection by the army cavalry, while the bicyclists would constitute a valuable reinforcement of its fire power. For such tasks army cavalry is indispensable.

The question whether armored car units will later replace army cavalry, must remain for the present unanswered. Up to this time no country has ventured to introduce purely armored car organizations in place of army cavalry. There are enough reasons for this hesitation. The armored car will always remain a special vehicle which in case of mobilization cannot be replaced from the stock in trade, nor, like a horse, be bought on a farm. To keep on hand in time of peace a large number of armored cars costs much money. A sudden progress in technical developments and the evolution of a light effective defensive weapon applicable

* With the permission of the publishers, translated from the issue of January 29, 1932, of "Deutsche Wehr," German military and defense publication, Berlin W 35, Potsdamerstrasse, 32 a.

en masse may render the accumulated peace-time stock of armored cars and tanks fit only for old iron. In time of peace there are never sufficient means available for expensive experiments on a big scale. The question whether and to what extent armored car units are to be preferred to army cavalry, will most likely be decided in a war between two modernly armed great nations. This question cannot be answered at a desk with the aid of plans and maps.

Since the independent cavalry cannot be dispensed with in operative tasks in which it, remote from its army, must fight entirely alone, thus mainly in enterprises against the enemy's flanks and rear, then it should be suitably organized for such tasks. It should be formed into efficient fighting units; thus into cavalry divisions and cavalry corps. In the solution of operative problems there enter numerous secondary problems, such as reconnaissance, security, protection of flanks and of the rear, requiring such considerable forces that only a strong formation can meet the requirement. How little, for instance, was accomplished in September of 1914 by the single French cavalry division in the rear of von Kluck's army, and what could have been accomplished if it had been not a single division but a corps of three cavalry divisions?

In no other arm of the service does the error of splitting up a force manifest itself so much as in army cavalry. The nature of a cavalry fight requires the striving for a quick decision brought about by surprise. With the present great repelling power of machine guns a weak adversary suffices to stop an independent cavalry force which does not appear from the start in sufficiently large numbers. For this reason the idea of organizing the army cavalry into independent brigades instead of divisions should be rejected. It tempts to the frittering away of cavalry and disaccustoms the leaders and men to marching and fighting in big formations.

The predilection still noticed now and then for independent cavalry brigades originates in the first place in the desire to have as many independent cavalry units as possible and is a compliment to partisans of independent cavalry *(Heereskavallerie)*. However, it is based on purely theoretical considerations not supported by practice and disproved by war experience. One may imagine these cavalry brigades distributed everywhere in order to be able to hurl themselves here and there according to the situation. In this way one becomes from the start dependent upon the enemy's actions and gives up the initiative. If independent cavalry is to be used in this manner, then carrying this idea through to a logical conclusion, one should infer that independent cavalry is not needed at all, since an independent cavalry brigade possesses no attacking power worth speaking of and is mainly suitable for defensive tasks. For a rapid insertion in one place or another for the purpose of the organization of a defense at a desired point, infantry in automobiles and bicyclists are more suitable than independent cavalry.

Should, in an exceptional case, the situation require employment in separate cavalry brigades, then it would be more advantageous temporarily to split up a cavalry division than to improvise for employment in a big enterprise a larger body from single brigades. War experiences should caution us against improvisation of cavalry division staffs and cavalry corps staffs.

As long as the technical science has not created an armored car capable of getting across country like a horseman, cavalry cannot be dispensed with, and, on the other hand, so long as there exists cavalry, it should be trained to operate and fight in big formations.

Reflections on the Tactical Rôle of the Cavalry of the Large Infantry Units

(A propos of an article on "The Cavalry")

INTRODUCED by the following editor's note: "The article on 'The Cavalry' by our contributor, Major Brenet, which appeared in the 'Revue de Cavalerie' of September-October, 1931, has been read with the greatest interest in France and abroad. It has been reproduced in part and commented upon by the British and American Cavalry Journals.* We publish below an article by Major Georges Picot, who, while approving Major Brenet's article in the main, finds a few objections as to details in certain of the ideas expressed. The discussion remains open. N. d. I. R."

Digest of the text:

All the arguments of Major Brenet rest upon four postulates:

1. The division should be covered at 15 kilometers.

2. A regiment of cavalry is necessary and sufficient to assure this security.

3. The commander of an army corps should seek information at a day's march to the front.

4. A group of armored cars will fulfill this mission perfectly.

The division should be covered at 15 kilometers.

Insufficient if the division is to move more than 10 or 12 km.

If, indeed, the covering troops are not installed defensively (hence, immobile) during the whole movement, the security will be doubtful, especially at night, and this latter is grave, for movements at night will be more and more unavoidable.

A regiment of cavalry is necessary and sufficient to assure this security.

Subject to proof.

Simple curtains of fire will arrest its progress eas-

*U. S. CAVALRY JOURNAL, November-December, 1931.

ily, and there will not be time to overcome these resistances before the arrival of the main body.

If the enemy in superior force progresses, the regiment will fight delaying actions, but the zone of security will shrink.

In either case, what becomes of the covering?

The army corps commander should seek information a day's march to the front.

This appears to be correct.

A group of armored cars will fulfill this mission.

Nothing is less certain.

Major Brenet says himself that "armored cars are stopped by the least ditch two or three meters wide * * *, by the least body of water 80 cm. deep, that they are incapable of combing a wood * * * of visiting a village whose approaches are barred. ***."

Under these conditions, will they succeed in pushing a day's march ahead?

If they do get there, can they stay there, supported by "a squadron of track-laying armored cars and a few motorcyclists" in contact with an enemy who is the least bit active? Certainly not.

Information should be sought at a day's march but will be of no value unless it is *permanent;* that is, emanating from a force strong enough to keep contact along the whole front and to keep the command in touch with the situation hour by hour.

* * * * * * * *

A center army corps has its first echelon divisions on a front AB on D-1 day.

This army corps is ordered to go forward, in liaison with the corps on its right and left, to a line CD, situated at a day's march in advance of AB.

What would be ideal for the army corps commander? A movement sheltered from enemy terrestrial and aerial observation; that is, *at night.* Thus he will conserve his freedom of maneuver and avoid the deployment of his units.

The line CD (or, better, a line beyond) must be held at the moment when the main body leaves AB. If this movement is made on the night of D-D plus 1, a strong covering force will have been sent on D day to CD, with a quadruple mission:

1. "Inundate" or "rake" the whole zone of action in order to locate the enemy and to determine his "apparent contour."

2. Estimate the strength of enemy resistances met with. Use maneuver if they are not continuous. Dislocate them if they are linear only. Make and preserve contact if they are solid and deep.

3. Occupy and hold the objective assigned until the main body arrives.

4. Fight a delaying action if the enemy advances in force.

The covering force to fulfill its mission should have a strong proportion of horse cavalry and armored cars, to "inundate" the zone of action and to fight a delaying action at need; of infantry, tanks and artillery, to overcome continuous resistance and to hold the objective during the night.

Suggested as the composition of such a force: a cavalry brigade of two regiments of horse cavalry and of two or three armored car squadrons, a battalion of infantry (portée), a company of tanks, one or two groups of portée artillery.

At the end of the day, the objective once attained or the front fixed, supplementary battalions, brought in trucks, would relieve the cavalry and would assume the defense of the position during the night. *(Editor's Note.* French cavalry is not heavily armed and apparently is not regarded as self-supporting at night. In the World War, part of the wear on horse flesh was chargeable to the nightly retirement behind infantry outposts and the morning march to get out beyond these outposts again.)

The maneuver which we have outlined would restore to the advance guard its security role, which the progress in armament and the creation of new engines have caused it to lose.

It is paradoxical that the advance guard operated in 1914 at the same distance as in 1870, although rapid fire cannon and the machine gun had made their appearance in the meantime.

It is more paradoxical still that the birth and the development of aviation and of mechanization have not had more influence on our pre-war conceptions; the advance guard still operates today at short distances, as in 1914, almost as in 1870.

The method of advance of our first echelon divisions makes one think of the blind that are seen in the streets, advancing slowly with short steps, striking with the ends of their canes the ground on which they are going to step, tottering continuously and ceaselessly exposed to being upset or crushed by a passerby whose approach they could not have suspected.

If the present methods are followed, we shall have to be resigned to all the drawbacks and dangers that are inherent in them: precarious security, impossibility of dissimulating movements, premature deployment, haphazard engagement, and mixing of units, fatigue and greater losses, great expenditure of ammunition, etc.

The alternative is for the advance guard to operate at a day's march with forces sufficient to contain the enemy; then there will be complete freedom of maneuver.

The Army would regulate the general conditions of the movement by prescribing the lines to be attained by the advance guards and the main bodies.

The army corps would maneuver in two echelons: an *advance guard,* the reinforced cavalry brigade whose action would permit the corps commander to plan his maneuver intelligently; a *main body* made up of the infantry divisions. The blind man would then recover his sight. He would hold two trump-cards, space and time.

The cavalry has a preponderant role in these preliminaries to offensive combat.

During the battle, the cavalry brigades would remain in reserve at the disposition either of the corps commander or of the commander of the army cavalry.

Each army would thus have at its disposal a provisional cavalry division of a variable number of brigades, capable of covering a flank, of stopping a gap, of participating in a flanking movement. The important rôle played by the cavalry divisions in the period of mobilization (covering of the frontier) requires cavalry brigades to be organized into divisions in time of peace, and up to the completion of the concentration.

After a successful battle, the cavalry brigades of army corps would attend to exploitation and pursuit. Their action would certainly be more vigorous than that of our heterogeneous reconnaissance groups.

The greater part of the war missions now assigned to cavalry divisions would be carried out by the provisional divisions or by the corps brigades. Only the missions at a very great distance could not be assumed by them, but we are here of Major Brenet's opinion: the time is past when the distant missions could be entrusted to horse divisions or even to mixed divisions; mechanized units are necessary.

The Diesel Engine Must Come to the Army

By 1st Lieutenant William P. Withers, Cavalry

THE modernization of armies follows the age-old principles of warfare, unchanged in fundamentals but radically different in application. Modern writers stress the lessons of the World War and preach vehemently their doctrines. All agree, however, as to the importance of the increased power of the machine gun and of its adaptation to military vehicles. Mechanization is absorbing the attention of the great powers of the world, and in this field the Diesel engine is destined to come to the front as the carrier of groups armed with machine guns and armored against them.

During the last war, mechanized warfare was not sufficiently developed to furnish definite solutions to our military problems of today. There is considerable uncertainty concerning the efficacy of this new type of warfare. In motorization of transport, however, all of the armies engaged in the World War had ample experience, and the lessons learned have been utilized to advantage. The progress in design and manufacture, as well as in tactical use, of transport vehicles is well-defined and gratifying.

Although the tactical exploitation of mechanization presents problems widely divergent from those of motor transport, or motorization, the experience gained during the war is not to be lost. Too many officers now in the Army recall the clogged roads and crossroads, the abandoned vehicles, the unkept rendezvous, the unfulfilled missions, due to the unsatisfactory handling of transportation. The causes of these fiascoes are various, some unavoidable, some due to lack of training, but many to the vehicles themselves as furnished.

Without attempting to classify them according to importance, I will point out a few considerations for the successful use of mechanically propelled vehicles:

The distance which a vehicle may travel without refilling its tank;

The safety of the crew of such a vehicle during movement;

The safety of the crew under battle conditions;

Hazard to persons engaged in handling fuel for vehicles;

Reliability of power plant, especially in starting engine.

In addition to these, there is the fairly new problem of shielding power plants to preclude interference with radio.

These principles which concern the successful use of mechanized units are self-identifying to laymen. Technical discussion has no place in this article, and later I hope to follow up some of the technical problems with discussion from the military point of view. Let us now consider the matter of the distance which a vehicle may travel on one tankful of fuel. It is possible of course to put automotive equipment on a tank car and propell it across the country. Likewise, a vehicle may be designed with such space economy that a very small tank, say a twenty-gallon tank, might be considered necessary. No one can say today just how far we will want an armoured car or a tank to go without having to be serviced with fuel.

Fuel requirements will vary with types of vehicle and with missions. No one can deny, though, that, if we achieve a radius of action three or four times as great as that of any vehicle we now have, *we have in our grasp a means of combating the increased firepower of the machine gun*—with which to use to multiple advantage that same increased firepower for our own purposes.

If gasoline continues in our service as a fuel for enclosed combat vehicles, the day will come when we shall have to pull blackened bodies from the twisted ruins of a tank—when we shall see crews of vehicles hesitate to enter them with these memories in their minds. Fire in such a case is caused by two things, the inflammability of gasoline and the position of the ignition system, where faulty care or accident is bound to produce fire. Fortunately, we do not have to submit to such danger. We have modern power plants in which the fire hazard has been entirely eliminated.

Even if we eliminate fire hazard in the vehicle, we still have to consider the safety of those who are engaged in handling the fuel from its source to the battle-front. The pilot returning from a flight over enemy lines gleefully boasts of the destruction of a gasoline dump, for he well knows the consternation such a loss and its accompanying danger strike in the hearts of opposing commanders.

Always, perhaps, shall we have with us the problem of maintenance of both chassis and engine in our com-

bat vehicles. After carefully inspecting his equipment, servicing it, sending it back for second or third echelon repairs, husbanding his resources carefully for attack, what can turn a commander's blood to cold gravy more quickly than seeing his organization crank up for the push-off, only to leave behind several units that just won't start? As long as we have gasoline and spark plugs with us, just so long will a cold morning strike dismay among us.

We need not elaborate on the necessity of radio in combat vehicles. We spend now on individual installations from one hundred to five hundred dollars to suppress the interference caused by the ignition system in the power units of our vehicles. Naturally, when these units are developed, that amount can be cut down. But, as long as we have ignition systems—as long as we have to ignite our fuel with a spark—that long shall we pay tribute to the engine designer and maker. The Diesel engine will eliminate this source of trouble.

Suppose you are in a combat vehicle 150 miles from your base, reconnoitering enemy advance elements. The rough roads have helped to use up your gasoline, have joggled your connections, have tried your patience. Your driver notifies you that a leaky gas line has lowered the fuel supply to the point where more must be obtained at once. You radio your base to tell them to have gasoline brought up, but the loose connections in the ignition system render your voice an unintelligible burble. Likewise the code is garbled. Through the crackling interference you detect your C. O.'s voice demanding repetition. You stop, cut off your engine, and get your message through. You give the order to start but the driver looks at you mournfully, steps out to check his engine. Something is wrong—it won't start. Then comes the noise of approaching vehicles. Your platoon is assembling with news of enemy forces on the way. Perhaps you do get it fixed. Maybe you can hook on another car and be towed in. On the other hand, it might well result in an abandoned vehicle or worse. Who wants to try it?

The point is, as we eliminate one source of our troubles, we progress just so much toward the realization of our goal. We put just so many more vehicles in the jump-off; we save just so many men in the maintenance organizations all the way back to the big bases; we leave just that much more room in the mind of the harassed commanders; we give just so much more confidence to the soldier who sits in the vehicle. We strike just so many more blows against our enemy.

The Diesel engine is a power plant that has just recently been adapted to mobile vehicles. It has been used in power boats for years, but American engineers have outstripped others in their progress towards an automotive Diesel engine.

A Diesel engine will go three to five times farther with the same or heavier load than a similar installation of the gasoline-spark-plug type, and *will do this on the same gallonage or cubical content in the fuel tank*. The radius of action is increased fourfold.

For fuel Diesel engines use oil, the kind of oil used in furnaces, gas plants and ice plants. It is readily obtainable in any city and in many villages where economy requires a Diesel engine in the town lighting plant. Light a match and dip it into the fuel oil. Your match goes out. The oil can be ignited, if heated first or compressed first, but not by a bullet, or a severe shock or detonation, nor by ordinary fire. With an engine like this in your combat vehicle, what if the car does turn over? The fuel can't ignite. What if your fuel line does leak? Diesel fuel oil carries with it no fire hazard.

Such oil can be stored in a convenient place at the dump, instead of isolating it. The oil might be ignited by a bomb, especially if it contained thermite, but it burns slowly and does not detonate.

Though this fuel does not burn easily, we need not expect trouble in igniting it in the combustion chamber of the engine. While the vehicle requires a generator to charge a battery for lights and starting motor, the engine itself requires no electrical current, no spark, no outside source of heat. By compressing within the cylinder to a point around 500 pounds per square inch, the Diesel engine prepares its fuel for automatic ignition. A Diesel engine of the type developed in this country for automotive use can be easily turned over by the standard starter and bendix assembly. The viscosity of the lubricant or of the fuel oil offers no obstacle whatever to this practice, and at ten degrees below zero immediate and certain starting is assured.

My last point is directed to the Communications Officer and to the man who put him where he is—the man who wants the communications to work—to the Commander. We have come to rely on the radio to accomplish this. Now, there is nothing about a Diesel engine which can possibly interfere with the satisfactory operation of a radio set, be it sending or receiving, voice or code.

Every fact I have uncovered points to safer, cheaper, more reliable operation of self-propelled vehicles when they are engined with Diesels. Diesel engines must come to the Army.

The Foreign Military Press

Reviewed by Major Alexander L. P. Johnson, Infantry

BOLIVIA.—*Revista Militar*,—October, 1931.

"Information concerning the armies of South America—Argentina," by Lieut. Col. O. V. L.

The military forces of the Argentine Republic comprise three components: the Army of the Line; the National Guard, and the Territorial Guard. The Army of the Line consists of the active army and its reserves. Service is compulsory. Upon completion of their active service conscripts pass into the reserve and remain in that category until their thirtieth year of age. The National Guard consists of officers, N. C. O.'s of the National Guard and citizens between 30 and 40 years of age. The Territorial Guard comprises officers and N. C. O.'s of the Territorial Guard and citizens between 40 and 45 years of age.

The national domain is divided into five administrative military zones, to each being assigned one division and certain other formations and services. The division commander also functions as zone commander and as such shoulders the responsibilities incidental to mobilization.

The division staff is organized in five sections: I. general staff; II. recruiting and orders; III. supply and administration; IV. medical and veterinary services; V. military justice. The division consists of headquarters and headquarters troop; infantry headquarters and three infantry regiments (each with one accompanying battery of four 75's); one regiment of cavalry; artillery headquarters and one regiment of field artillery (four batteries of 75's and one battery of 105's); one batallion of engineers (pontoniers); ammunition and field trains, and divisional hospital. In addition, there are three independent cavalry brigades, two Alpine detachments and two regiments of Mounted Infantry. The cavalry brigade consists of headquarters and headquarters troop; three regiments of cavalry; one M. G. Squadron; one battalion Horse Artillery (two batteries of 75's) and one detachment of Mounted Engineers (pontoniers). The Alpine detachments consist of headquarters; one regiment of Alpine Chausseurs; one platoon of Alpine Scouts; one battalion mountain artillery, and one company engineers (sappers). The regiment of mounted infantry has 2 battalions (19 officers and 360 men).

The peace strength of the Argentine army is about 5000 officers and 20,000 men. The first levy comprises 250.000 men. The total mobilized man power of Argentina amounts to approximately 700,000 officers and men. Argentina has neither an antiaircraft nor any coast defense system. The infantry armament includes the Argentine Mauser rifle, model 1909; the Colt and Maxim type machine gun and the Argentine Madsen automatic rifle. All these use calibre 7.65 ammunition. The cavalry is armed with the Mauser carbine using infantry ammunition, the lance, sabre or machete. The artillery materiel represents a variety of models, some of rather old type.

The cultural level of officers is high. Professional training is provided by the following institutions: 1. The San Martin Military Academy, founded in 1869, which offers a four year course of instruction to about 1,500 cadets. Graduates assigned to the artillery or engineers are required to pursue a post-graduate course of two years. 2. The infantry, cavalry and artillery schools offering courses extending from 15 days to six months; and 3. the Superior War College, founded in 1900, which offers a three years course in higher staff and command training to about 35-45 officers. In addition to these, there are also a school of military aviation, a signal school, a school for physical training and fencing, as well as a N. C. O. school and a school for musicians.

CANADA.—*Canadian Defense Quarterly*,—January, 1932.

"General Pershing and the Battle of Hamel," by W. B. Kerr.

The author takes issue with the statement in General Pershing's memoirs regarding the use of American troops by the British at Hamel, on July 4, 1918, without the consent of the Commander-in-Chief of the A. E. F., whose comment is quoted along with the details of the incident to the effect that it "showed clearly the disposition of the British to assume control of our units . . ." The author seeks to answer the query: "did the British in the Hamel affair do anything contrary to the will of the Americans involved?" He cites General Sir John Monash's "Australian Victories in France in 1918" (pp. 52-55) to show, that the American 33rd Division had for some weeks been in training with British and Australian contingents, that this fact suggested the idea to General Monash to invite American cooperation, and that he applied to the Fourth Army and secured permission to use 2000 United States troops in the affair. The author believes that General Pershing's own version: "the British requested . . . Read . . . to permit some of the troops . . . to take part," is ambiguous since the word "request" implies an exercise of authority short of command. The situation is, in the author's opinion, clarified by Divisional Adjutant Huidekoper, whose "His-

tory of the 33rd Division" states that "General Rawlinson had asked permission of the Commanding General of the II American Corps to utilize certain American units in an attack which he contemplated making." The author attributes all responsibility for the incident to Major General Read, commander of the II Corps who, knowing the orders he had received from General Pershing, and the latter's attitude towards the use of American troops, nevertheless, believed that he might allow himself some latitude in carrying out instructions. "Accordingly he granted the permission, probably wholeheartedly, and sanctioned the employment of eight companies, 2000 men of the 33rd Division, with the Australian Corps." Upon reconsideration of the matter, the force was reduced to 1000 men and General Monash rearranged his plans accordingly. General Pershing, when informed of the plan, disapproved the same and "advised Read that our troops should not participate." This left General Read in a difficult position, but he decided that "advice" after all "was not imperative, and that he might let the matter stand."

On July 3, General Pershing, then in Paris, saw Field Marshal Haig and later called Read on the telephone giving him "further and positive instructions that our troops should be withdrawn." At the same time Haig communicated with Rawlinson, and Monash was instructed that no American troops were to be used. Preparations for the attack had progressed too far for such sudden changes. Monash protested, Rawlinson explained the situation at British G. H. Q., and as a result Read was informed "that no change could be made without orders from Field Marshal Haig," who, however, "could not be reached." Field Marshal Haig, when informed of the situation, decided to let "everything go on as originally planned" and thereby assumed the responsibility for disregarding Pershing's directions. Nevertheless, the author concludes that Major General Read was primarily responsible for the employment of American troops contrary to General Pershing's wishes by accepting Rawlinson's invitation. Responsibility in the second place, the author believes rests upon the shoulders of the American Commander-in-Chief, because by his "advice" on July 2, "he had permitted Read the option of continuing the Americans in the line of battle." The author believes that there is "no evidence of a disposition to control but every evidence of courtesy and consideration," and that the British acted contrary to General Pershing's wishes only when "forced . . . either to cancel the operations or to use the Americans."

CHILE.—*Memorial del Ejercito de Chile*,—December, 1931.

"Mountain Warfare," by Major Ernesto Salbach.

From a tactical point of view mountains represent a highly specialized theatre of war. Their height and ruggedness, defiles, scarcity of roads and railway communications, dearth of telegraph and telephone lines, frequent storms of considerable intensity and, in certain regions, the presence of snow perpetual or seasonal, abrupt changes of temperature and numerous other conditions tax the endurance of man and beast to the extreme. These regions seriously affect the technique of fire of all arms and they slow up considerably all military operations. Past experiences indicate that the tactics of lowlands are inapplicable to military operations in mountainous regions even though the underlying principles remain the same.

In crossing the Caucasus, Alexander the Great lost 50% of his army in six days. Hannibal, crossing the Alps in 218 B.C. lost 25,000 foot soldiers, 75,000 horsemen and 37 elephants, or 20% of his effective strength while covering a distance of 300 km in 16 days. Francis I crossing the Alps in 1515, lost 47,000 infantry, 2,500 cavalry and 370 guns, while the same feat in 1800, cost Napoleon 40,000 infantry, 3,400 cavalry and 40 guns, covering a distance of 200 km in 14 days. San Martin, Argentine patriot, crossing the Andes in 1817, lost 5,000 men and 16 guns, 10,000 mules and 2,000 horses, covering a distance of 250 km in approximately 13 days. These historic examples have inclined military leaders to the belief that the possession of a mountain frontier or the mountainous character of a country was sufficient protection against invasion, hence a small garrison would suffice for national defense. The World War, however, demonstrated the utter fallacy of this assumption. Moreover, it proved the decisive importance of Alpine troops for mountain warfare.

Winter and mountains, even Alpine regions have ceased to be the obstacles they formerly were to military operations by great masses. Thorough familiarity with the characteristics, handicaps and perils presented by mountainous terrain is essential to success. Far-sighted peace-time training will materially reduce the hazards of war. Lack of such familiarity with the mountains, and the lack of suitable organization and training for mountain warfare were responsible for Enver Pasha's disastrous winter campaign in the Caucasus in 1914-1915, which cost the Turks 78,000 men out of an army of 90,000. Similarly the Russian army barely escaped annihilation in the Carpathians during the winter 1914-1915, while the Austro-Hungarian army, accustomed to the mountainous terrain, suffered no particular hardships campaigning at high altitudes in eight to twelve meters of snow. Italy being essentially a mountainous country, has since the beginning of the century sought to train her officers and troops in the tactics of mountain warfare. Italian troops so trained and acclimated rendered excellent services in the Alps, while troops from the south and from coastal regions not so trained suffered terribly. World War experience also indicates that while troops trained for warfare in lowlands and open plains never prove satisfactory in Alpine regions, quite the reverse is true of Alpine troops. Thus, the historic example

of the Alpine regiments of Austria-Hungary. At the outbreak of the war this splendid body of troops was taken to the steppes of Russia where they successfully opposed the Muscovite steam-roller.

At the beginning of the war Germany did not have any Alpine troops. She was compelled, however, to organize such units in course of the conflict. Ordinary troops were given special training in mountain warfare before they were so employed. Whenever conditions compelled omission of such special training, the consequences were invariably disastrous.

Mountain warfare exacts of each individual a firm character, considerable gallantry, self-confidence and will to endure privations, sacrifices and the serverest hardships. The good mountaineer must have a powerful physique and sterling morale that will enable him to subsist and keep going under the most adverse conditions. Mountains reduce considerably the importance of masses, of mere quantity. "Quality becomes paramount."

Considering the mountainous character of Chile, and the historic facts reviewed, the author advocates the organization and training of the bulk of the Chilean army as Alpine troops.

AUSTRIA.—*Oesterreichische Wehrzeitung*,—February 12, 1932.

"American-Japanese Naval Strategy," by Naval Lieut. Hans Sokol, Retired.

Considering the possibilities of a conflict between the United States and Japan, the author points out that even the purely geographical problems involved appear well nigh insoluble. Not even with British support could the United States establish an effective blockade of the Japanese Empire, hence to strike at Japan's economic life is practically out of question. It is obvious, however, that a naval decision is necessary to determine the issues of a war between these powers. This means, of course, the necessity of offensive action. The natural objective of such an offensive would be the most vulnerable or the most accessible point of the enemy's coast, unless indeed the opposing navies meet on the high seas.

A Japanese offensive against the American coast (San Francisco or Panama Canal) would be a gamble as long as Hawaii remains in American possession. The distance alone is a factor which, in the absence of suitable naval bases, entails a risk no admiral would care to assume. The most brilliant victory would be barren of results. The situation is more favorable with respect to an American offensive using Honolulu as a base. Even so, it would be a very risky undertaking. Geographically, therefore, the situation is unfavorable for an offensive by either side. It leaves the possibility, however, of raids by single vessels. Thus the Panama Canal might conceivably be the objective of Japanese air raids or other attempts seeking its destruction.

The comparative strength of the Japanese and American navies impose upon the former a defensive, and upon the latter an offensive role. Japanese cruiser raids or war on commerce could hardly inflict serious injury upon America's economic life. It is hardly to be expected that Japanese submarines could successfully emulate the example of the German U-boats. The American naval personnel is technically superior to the Japanese, especially in the field of aviation which does not seem to sit well with the Japanese. The victors of Tsushima may, however, have the advantage of morale and tradition. Nevertheless, the author believes, that it is not unreasonable to assume that the intangible factor of morale likewise restricts Japanese action to "interior lines." The author concludes that "paradoxical though it may seem, a naval war between these two powers would result in a draw," and in the absence of a possibility to carry the war to hostile territory, such conflict is bound to remain one of diplomats.

The picture would materially change were Great Britain to intervene on the one side or the other. Such intervention would make available the necessary bases for naval operations and open the possibilities of land warfare. British help would supply Japan with the means for offensive action, or it would enable the United States to undertake extensive landing operations in Japan or Japanese possessions. In the event of such a conflict, the author states, European public opinion takes an Anglo-American line-up for granted. "That," he adds, "may be true today. The morrow, however, is wrapped in darkness and may bring surprises."

FRANCE.—*Revue des Forces Aeriennes*,—December, 1931.

"Military Aviation in Japan."

Since the arrival in Japan of a French military mission, in 1919, Japanese military aviation has made considerable progress notwithstanding serious casualties. In 1925, the Japanese Air Force was reorganized as an independent arm. At the same time the suppression of four divisions permitted an increase of the Air Force and a modernization of its materiel.

The Japanese Air Force consists at present of eight regiments and one balloon battalion. The organization comprises 11 observation, 11 pursuit and 4 bombardment squadrons with a total of 267, 276 and 41 airplanes respectively. Eleven bombers are equipped for night operations. In addition Japan has 39 training planes. (Der Luft-Attache, April, 1931)

GERMANY. — *Artilleristische Rundschau*, — February, 1931.

"Opinions Regarding Antiaircraft Artillery," by First Lieut. Pickert.

The author reviews an article by Major Vauthier, French Army, published in 1928 under the title "Questions d'Artillerie Anti-Aerienne." The object of that essay was to dispel the prevailing notion that there is something very obscure and mysterious about the functioning of antiaircraft artillery. As a matter of fact,

the author states, a few hours of effort will suffice with the average person to acquire a fairly good working knowledge of its technique. The fire of antiaircraft artillery is uninfluenced by terrestrial conditions. Positions of antiaircraft guns must be accessible from highways yet be masked against ground observation. The high rate of speed of the moving target presents the only serious aspect of the problem. Pursuit planes, because of their high speed and irregularity of flight are particularly difficult targets. The high velocity of the antiaircraft projectile offers a partial compensation for this handicap. Even so, in the computation of all firing data we must take into consideration the amount of displacement of the target laterally, vertically or in the direction of the plane of fire during the flight of the projectile. Effort is being made in certain countries, notably France, Great Britain and the United States to increase the effectiveness of antiaircraft guns by means of increased velocity and calibre of the ammunition. The weight of mobile guns definitely limits the possibilities in that direction.

Vauthier insists that antiaircraft guns should possess the mobility of divisional artillery, and that they should use the same ammunition in order to simplify the supply problem. From this opinion the author dissents on the ground that antiaircraft ammunition must of necessity and invariably will differ from that of terrestrial artillery. Medium antiaircraft guns must possess a high operative and a certain amount of tactical mobility. According to Vauthier, the 30-second fuse marks the practical limit of effectiveness for light and medium antiaircraft materiel. Any increase in the time of flight of the projectile impairs the basic hypothesis, that the airplane travels approximately in a straight line, at the same elevation and at a constant rate of speed. Small calibre rapid fire antiaircraft guns and automatic antiaircraft guns are effective at lower elevations only with very high velocity ammunition. This class of guns should possess the mobility of the infantry cannon because of the frequency of their employment in the front line.

Range finding apparatus is of paramount importance to A. A. artillery. France abandoned the two-station system of range finding in favor of the one-station system because of the difficulty of maintaining communications. Success of the A. A. artillery depends upon the range finder and its effective and efficient use. According to Vauthier, the central fire control apparatus is likewise an important part of the equipment. He calls it the brains of the battery for it determines the firing data and transmits the same to the guns in usable form. Each battery should have two complete sets of this equipment, so that one may always be in reserve. Searchlights and listening devices are indispensable for night firing. An efficiently organized wireless communications net is equally vital. Frequently a delay of a few seconds in the transmission of information may have serious consequences. Vauthier also insists upon the provision of battalion fire control equipment to facilitate centralized control of the three batteries at favorable moments.

European opinion differs as to the organic assignment of antiaircraft artillery. Vauthier believes each division should have one organic light A.A. battery of four and one automatic A.A. battery of six pieces. These, in his opinion, will provide complete antiaircraft protection for the division. Others hold that A.A. units should not be assigned organically below the corps. German authorities believe that the division must be capable of independent action, hence it should have organic antiaircraft artillery.

Immediate command over antiaircraft artillery is likewise subject of a lively controversy. Vauthier believes that A.A. artillery should not be placed under the artillery commander or the Air Force Commander as that would tend to relegate the antiaircraft artillery to second place. He advocates a separate Antiaircraft Artillery commander on the corps staff.

The author observes that one of the outstanding tactical problems of today is the antiaircraft protection of a division in route column. Owing to the present state of development of aviation it is impossible to protect the column effectively at every point against aerial attack or observation. The presence of an organic divisional antiaircraft unit would not improve the situation materially. Road and traffic conditions will generally prevent the leapfrogging of antiaircraft units along the route of march unless they be assured an absolute and automatic right of way at all times such as is enjoyed by city fire departments. In any event, it must be regarded as axiomatic that the traditional route columns of great length are altogether things of the past. Vauthier emphasizes the importance of "*concentration et surprise*" as the basic principle in the tactical employment of antiaircraft artillery. Irregular, spasmodic bursts of fire are preferable to sustained action, while the dispersion of antiaircraft artillery will entail failure to even a greater extent than in the use of other arms.

—*Deutsche Wehr*,—January 22, 1932.

"Japanese-American Incidents in Manchuria."

Arrest of an American officer in uniform and the maltreatment of the American vice-consul at Harbin indicate the impossibility of continued denial or ignoring of the existence of an actual state of war. It may be going too far to connect these incidents, caused by subordinates, with the Japanese High Command on the scene, or to consider them as deliberate expressions of Japanese contempt for the United States. Yet one cannot escape the feeling that the United States has lost considerable prestige in the Orient, and that as a result of her possible withdrawal from the Philippines coupled with her avowed pacifistic policy she will continue to lose a great deal more. It is not thought that Japan is pursuing a policy of deliberate provocation, although it seems quite probable that she entertains a low regard for America's indecisive foreign policy which may convey to Japan a sense of security. There still is a wide gulf between diplomatic notes and reference to the Kellog and Nine Power pacts, and energetic action.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Journal of the Royal United Service Institution,*—November, 1931.

"The International Situation—A European Danger Signal," by Major E. W. Polson Newman, B.A., F.R.G.S.

European nations are grouped in two camps. In the one are those nations which benefited territorially or otherwise as a result of the Great War, and have pledged themselves to a peace based upon the *status quo.* In the other are those nations which lost territorially or otherwise and, therefore, favor a readjustment of conditions. Notwithstanding these basically conflicting policies there is a general policy of international cooperation. It is obvious, however, that European cooperation and the status quo cannot long continue to exist side by side. Sooner or later both groups will have to choose between peace, progress and economic stability obtainable only by a readiness to make national sacrifices if necessary, and inevitable war which is bound to result from their present determination to preserve or redeem at any cost national possessions.

Although the proposed Austro-German Customs Union had the appearance of a purely economic arrangement, it was in fact a significant danger signal. It came as a warning that the status quo created by the treaties of Versailles, St. Germain and Trianon was about to revive the old problem of the balance of power. The present mental state of Europe bodes ill, and nothing short of an imminent danger of another European war is likely to restore her balance of judgment. Much talk about disarmament generally presages a serious crisis, and the present occasion may not be an exception to the rule. Perhaps, the imminent danger of war with all its consequences may have a deterring effect and incline European nations in favor of peace even at the price of certain sacrifices. The contention, that the maintenance of the status quo is an essential safeguard of peace is untenable in the interests of Europe. Enforced peace can only pave the way for future wars. The victors must be prepared to part with certain portions of their gains. Adequate compensation must be provided, however, for reasonable concessions made in an honest attempt to rectify grievances which arose from errors and injustices of the peace settlements.

It is impossible to maintain the relative strength of European nations on the basis of 1918. Adjustment by sensible and straightforward anticipation is preferable to an otherwise inevitable clash of arms. The chief obstacle to such a course lies in the prevailing attempt to seek the impossible, of having everything both ways: cooperation and the status quo. In the words of Mussolini, "the question of the Polish Corridor and that of the Hungarian frontiers are serious problems which Europe has to face today. The conditions imposed upon the Hungarians by the Treaty of Trianon cannot be regarded as justice . . . neither of these questions is easy of solution, but no solution is possible unless an attempt is made to find one."

HUNGARY.—*Magyar Katonai Szemle,*—September, 1931.

"Contemporary Problems of Rapidly Moving Troops," by Major Joseph Németh.

Rapidly moving troops comprise all elements of an army possessing greater mobility than infantry and non-motorized artillery. Without attributing peculiar significance to such group of arms, the author subjects to a searching analysis their special characteristics with a view to determining their proper tactical employment.

World War experience inclined military authorities towards the elimination of cavalry in favor of more up-to-date organizations, such as cyclists, motorized infantry, tanks and armored cars. The author believes that the ineffectiveness of cavalry in the World War was as much due to high commanders who failed to employ that arm properly as the traditional cavalry spirit which looked upon dismounted action with disdain and contempt. After the first flurries of adverse judgment, military authorities gradually came back to a more sensible view as to the usefulness of the cavalry arm. It is now generally conceded that the time has not yet come when we may dispense with the services of the cavalry altogether. It still remains an important factor in reconnaissance. Air Service cannot obtain the detailed information commanders in the field must have. Such missions must necessarily be entrusted to ground troops.

Cyclist units, though capable of greater speed than horsemen are largely confined to roads. As roads become impassable, or where they are totally lacking, cyclists quickly lose whatever advantage they possess over cavalry. The cycle pushed by hand becomes an encumbrance which seriously impedes the soldier's marching speed and reduces his mobility below that of the infantryman. Motorized infantry, unless transported in cross-country trucks, is similarly road-bound. But even under the most favorable circumstances motorized infantry, while en route, is highly vulnerable. Neither can it see nor hear; moreover, it depends for its immediate security upon other elements. Armored cars are similarly handicapped although less vulnerable because of their high speed and protective armor. The cavalry alone is independent of roads and capable of performing the important mission of battle reconnaissance irrespective of conditions of terrain. Similarly in pursuit and retirement the cavalry remains an indispensable arm. To be sure, modern battle conditions have made of the cavalry an arm of opportunity, hence it can accomplish its missions only when properly employed and led. Cavalry training should, therefore, be based upon sound tactical lines. Close order drill is no longer of importance. The German cavalry drill regulations actually eliminated that phase of instruction for units larger than the platoon. All cavalry drill formations and movements must be considerably simplified and harmonized with the infantry drill. Dismounted action needs to be emphasized. March endurance must be cultivated and developed. Cavalry must be taught to take advantage of darkness and fog, and it should strive to attain a high degree of efficiency

in reconnaissance, security and screening operations. Co-operation with motorized infantry, cyclists and artillery should form an important part of cavalry training. Current opinion favors a substantial increase in the fire power of the cavalry, although there is a divergence of opinions as to how that should be accomplished. Some advocate an organic horse artillery component for each regiment, others seem to rely upon an increase in the number of machine guns and automatic rifles. The French cavalry regiment includes an organic armored car company.

The subject of proper cavalry tactics still is highly controversial. Some authorities regard cavalry as mounted infantry and advocate its use as such. Others still believe that cavalry should remain mounted as long as it can accomplish its mission by doing so. Thus, Budeny, cavalry leader of the Soviet Army, adheres to the old cavalry doctrine that the trooper should dismount only in case of absolute necessity. Prevailing opinions in the United States and Soviet Russia agree that cavalry action of the war of the future will be characterized by isolated combats of small units scattered over a wide front. In both countries cavalry training emphasizes equally mounted and dismounted action and includes mounted fire action.

The motor as a means of transportation is an important strategic factor, but it is wholly dependent upon road conditions and the state of development of the motor industry of a given country. Under favorable conditions it confers upon the high command an important advantage. The motor in its tactical aspects, as in the case of tanks and armored cars, raises the important question whether or not it should determine the tactical employment and action of the infantry. There may be situations, especially in operations of mechanized forces, when the motor will exercise such decisive influence. In most cases, however, this will not be so. The seizure of ground, the capture of prisoners and materiel still remain essential elements of the mission of every attack. These are normal functions of the infantry. Tanks can only assist in the execution of these missions. The author prefers a 10-15 ton tank carrying an armor of 25-30 mm thickness and capable of a speed of 15-20 km.p.h. Such a tank, in his opinion, will meet all requirements of open warfare operating either in conjunction with infantry or independently.

Armored cars, though restricted to roads, can be successfully employed on reconnaissance, in the service of security, in pursuit or retreat, and in raids against hostile communications. Their great speed favors the element of surprise in their tactical handling. It must be remembered, however, that they are not capable of sustained action.

In summing up the results and effects of motorization and mechanization, the author concludes that in the war of the future the engine will render valuable assistance but the time has not come when it can take the place of the fighting man.

NETHERLANDS. — *De Militaire Spectator,* — January, 1932.

Having rounded out a hundred years of usefulness this ably edited publication appropriately marks the beginning of its second century with a special Jubilee Number dedicated to Her Majesty, the Queen. It contains among others a number of articles suitable to the occasion including congratulatory messages from the highest military authorities of the realm. May we add our felicitations with the best wishes for continued prosperity and success.

SPAIN.—*La Guerra y Su Preparación,*—September-October, 1931.

"The New Military Laws of Soviet Russia," by Lieut. Col. Beigbeder, Spanish Military Attaché in Berlin.

The military laws of Soviet Russia, superseding those of August, 1928, contain the following provisions:

1. Active military service is divided into four classes:

a. A certain number of recruits serve two years with units of the active army.

b. The majority of 750,000 men who become available annually for active service, are enrolled in divisions of the Territorial Militia. Their term of service varies from eight to eleven months according to the arm of service to which assigned.

c. The remainder, after the requirements of the active army and the territorial militia have been filled, are assigned to special training cadres organized in each locality. These provide military instruction for one month each winter during five consecutive years.

d. Specialist workers perform their obligatory military service of two years in factories and industrial plants producing war materials.

2. For the training of officer personnel military instruction is compulsory for all students of universities and technical institutes. This training consists of courses of theoretical instruction and a period of practical field training of 3-4 months duration with some military organization. Upon conclusion of this course of instruction all candidates are subjected to an examination and, if successful, receive appointment to the grade of platoon commander.

3. Military service is a privilege reserved to workers and peasants. Those not belonging to these privileged classes must, nevertheless, render some service to the state. Formerly they were obliged to pay a military tax. The new law, however, creates special labor organizations in which those excluded from military eligibility must serve a period of two years. They are employed on public utilities and improvements. In time of war they are to be assigned to the auxiliary services and the service of the rear.

4. The Ossoaviachim organization with a membership of five million conducts military training camps, schools, airdromes, target ranges, centers of equitation, etc. for the military training of youths of pre-military age along lines adopted by the fascist militia of Italy.

BOOK REVIEWS

FOCH, THE MAN OF ORLEANS. By B. H. Liddell Hart. Little, Brown and Company, 1932. 463 Pages. $4.00.

Captain Liddell Hart's latest work (which is far more than a biography) presents a World War book of high importance, albeit a rather irritating mixture of fact and controversial criticism after the event, with touches of philosophy by way of interpretation. For a student it is of deep interest and value; the account and the student's own knowledge from other material will profitably combine to clarify the tortuous course of the Western Front campaigns and their mysteries. The more casual reader will find it no less interesting and stimulating.

The question is irresistible: *does* Captain Liddell Hart find that any commander of the army of any nation engaged in the war did his job reasonably well? Pétain scores higher than the others. Foch, against the background of the whole conduct of the land warfare in the West, with glimpses of the Eastern theatre, is shown inflexible to stubborness at the start, academic, his conceptions of his tasks changing but slowly from the doctrinaire stand of the Ecole Supérieure lecturer and disciple of Clausewitz; and always the incurable and often the superficial opportunist. With other conceptions of these tasks could the Marshal have shortened the war? Yes, if you accept Captain Liddell Hart's views.

Foch's disappointment in the Treaty negotiations and in the Treaty itself, and his relations with Clemenceau, are considered in illuminating detail.

The Commander and the Man are drawn as persons of notably different traits. The theme of Foch's spiritual tie with Jeanne d'Arc, expressed in the title and recurrent in the later chapters, fails of convincing; it is a pretty notion, but tenuous. An Epilogue, stressing the force and the mysticism of his character, seeks to evaluate the influence of his career; the key is found in the book's closing phase—"the suggestion of invincibility which became the fact of victory."

Captain Liddell Hart is rarely over-enthusiastic towards America's part in the war. Thus we learn that the essential contribution of the A. E. F. to events culminating on November 11, 1918, was twenty-four double-size divisions. As for craftsmanship, there is evidence of hurried work, though for the most part the study is readable, vivid, more than excellent. By contrast, a mawkish, labored bit notes "the night of internal crisis" when Foch was born!

There is an index, and a well-selected year-by-year bibliography which includes American and German sources.

DIE MARNE—DEUTSCHLANDS SCHICKSAL? Ein Wort gegen die dramatische Geschichtsauffassung in der militaerischen Literatur. (The Marne—Germany's Fate? A Word against the Dramatic Concept of History in Military Literature.) By Wilhelm Marx, Lieutenant General, German Army, Late Inspector of Artillery. Berlin, E. S. Mittler & Sohn, 1932. pp. 63. Price 40 cents.

As the title and subtitle imply, this is a small work in which General Marx decidedly opposes the concept in the literature of the World War and particularly in the semi-official work of the Reichsarchiv, that the First Marne was lost through faulty leadership of the younger Moltke, and that Schlieffen would have won the war.

Though containing only 60 pages actual text (including a three-page foreword) the pamphlet is so rich in thoughts that no brief review can do it full justice. To a certain extent the brochure is also a strategic study, for which reason it presents a highly interesting addition to the literature of German strategy, irrespective whether one agrees with the author or not.

The little work takes up the dramatic element in military history, the deviation from the Schlieffen plan, the strength of the right wing of the German army on the western front, the errors during the battles, the mission of Lieutenant Colonel Hentsch, the "secondary" reproaches, and concludes with a review and a section devoted to the harmful effects of the dramatic concept in history.

The author maintains that it is foolish to believe that the fate of a large nation depends on one mortal, as exemplified by the widespread notion that Germany lost in Schlieffen the only man who could have won the war. He defends Moltke and Buelow and attempts to prove that Hentsch saved the right wing from a perilous situation.

The right wing was numerically as strong as the smaller number of troops in the field and the strategic situation permitted, and even the transfer of the two corps to the eastern theater of war was a strategic necessity and aided in improving the situation in Poland.

Apart from the technical difficulties of a march and supply, it is scarcely to be assumed that a reserve army following the right wing could have attained the victory, for the secrecy of a great envelopment had been lost through Schlieffen's publication, and indeed was possible only against an inferior enemy. The French and British, however, were capable and would have frustrated the envelopement by timely measures. Even Schlieffen could not have defeated both nations, for both would have fought for years for their existence.

THE ART OF RIDING. By Lt. Col. M. F. McTaggart, D. S. O. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. Price $3.50.

To those of us who have read Colonel McTaggert's earlier books, the author needs no introduction. In his latest work he has taught us what many so-called horsemen do not know—that there is an *art* in riding. He not only teaches us the principles of horsemanship, but compels the reader to think things out for himself and to apply those rules which he sets forth.

In chapters on *The Seat*, Colonel McTaggert gives as his first rule the correct placing of the rider in the center of the saddle. Balance for horse and rider is the goal towards which all horsemen should strive, and until this is obtained it is useless to attempt more advanced work. Light hands will naturally follow the attainment of a good seat. Every phase of the walk, trot and canter, as well as mounting and dismounting, is dealt with comprehensively.

The much-discussed "military" or "forward" seat, which the author states should be known as the "balanced" seat, is taken up in chapters on *Jumping*. He describes in detail the positions of horse and rider in taking obstacles in show jumping, hunting and steeplechasing. He emphasizes the fact that best results are obtained by giving the horse complete freedom, the rider having only a "feel of his mouth."

There follows a chapter devoted to the side-saddle and another to children's ponies. There are also interesting discussions of stable management and the common ailments of horses.

Colonel McTaggart emphasizes the importance of schooling, and gives some excellent exercises for properly schooling young horses.

An unusual feature throughout this book is that the author deals with the incorrect methods of riding as well as the correct method, thus bringing clearly to the reader's mind the faults so common to horses and riders, and how to correct them.

Many splendid illustrations greatly enhance the value of this work as a text book.

Colonel McTaggart, in his usual simple but convincing manner, brings out many fine points in horsemanship and horsemastership for the experienced rider as well as the beginner. We would recommend this book as one of the most authoritative ever written on that subject so dear to the hearts of equestrians— the *Art of Riding*.

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THE PONY EXPRESS. Arthur Chapman. G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932. $3.50. *Reviewed by 1st Lieut. C. C. Clendenen, 12th Cavalry.*

Most of us have been thrilled, in the days when we conducted bitter campaigns against the Indians and bandits in the vacant lot across the street, by tales of the fearless Pony Express rider, dashing across the plains and through the mountains, changing horses in a breath at the relay station, and finally thundering into the terminal of his run, with his precious package of letters safe and sound. But the very romance of the Pony Express has obscured the vital part it played in linking the two widely separated sections of our country, and few of us have ever given a thought to the careful planning and organization necessary to make the Express a success.

In "The Pony Express", the author, Mr. Chapman traces the development of transcontinental communications in the era following the discovery of gold in California—a development which reached its dramatic climax in April, 1860, when a horseman galloped out from St. Joseph, Missouri with dispatches destined to be delivered in San Francisco only a week later.

Mr. Chapman traces, from authentic sources the controversy between the respective advocates of the northern and southern routes for the delivery of mail to "the Coast". (The Civil War was not far in the distance, and each section wanted to gain control of the western communications for itself.) California suffered from lack of contact with the rest of the Union. At one time the mails were routed through Arizona, while again they were routed through Utah.

This was the situation in 1860, when the well-known freighting firm of Russell, Majors & Waddell conceived the idea of delivering important messages by relays of horsemen. Mr. Chapman gives the reader an idea of the difficulties attendant upon such a project. Relay stations must be established and provisioned, superior horses procured, routes reconnoitered, and last but not least, a corps of riders must be recruited—reliable, adventurous, vigorous, young men, who would be true to their trust regardless of danger or discomfort.

The Pony Express was successful in establishing communication between "the Coast" and "the States", as we all know. For over two years, almost as regular as the clock, riders left St. Joseph and arrived in Sacramento on a weekly schedule. The Pah-Ute War in Nevada claimed some of the riders as victims, but never interrupted the service entirely. Blizzards in the Sierras were disregarded, but to provide the comedy relief, an unfriendly bulldog at a Nebraska ranch caused the Express to be re-routed in that territory.

Such a project as the Pony Express could not survive without liberal subsidies from the government, and the subsidies were never granted. The original friendliness of the public toward the project changed sharply when it was discovered that certain of the company's officials were engaged in somewhat shady relations with government officials, and, finally, the westward advance of the electric telegraph rendered unnecessary the comparatively awkward expedient of communicating by relays of horsemen.

Any work which illustrates the vital part played by the horse in the development of American civilization must necessarily be of interest to horsemen. A few hours spent with "The Pony Express" cannot fail to be both pleasant and profitable to the reader, particularly if the reader is a Cavalryman.

SPORTS

The Modern Pentathlon

ONE of the least known but most gruelling of all competitions on the Olympic calendar is the Modern Pentathlon; an all-round competition introduced to test the skill and endurance of the 20th Century sportsman. The event first appeared in the 5th Olympiad in Stockholm and is built around the International Olympic Committee's conception of the physical qualifications required by modern successors to the knights of old. As the name implies, you have in the Modern Pentathlon five separate and distinct events, viz., a cross country ride against time for 5,000 meters, fencing with the duelling sword, target shooting with the duelling pistol, swimming 300 meters—a dictance based on the width of the larger European rivers—and winding up with a 4,000-meter cross country run.

The competition lasts five successive days, one to each sport. The winner is determined, as in the ancient Pentathlon, by totalling the relative place of each competitor in each event. Only individual places count, as the Modern Pentathlon is not a team event.

The final elimination tryouts for the 1932 Olympic Games Modern Pentathlon Team were held at West Point, N. Y., on May 11-12-13-14, in the presence of Major General Guy V. Henry, Chief of Cavalry, Chairman, Mo..ern Pentathlon Committee, and the other members of the committee.

Twelve men competed in the tryouts. Of the twelve, three were civilians and nine were officers of the Army. Captain C. R. Johnson, Cavalry, is the officer in charge of training.

The final selection of the team to represent the United States in the Modern Pentathlon event and their standing in the final tryout is:

1. 2nd Lieutenant B. W. Brady, Infantry,
2. 2nd Lieutenant C. J. Mansfield, Cavalry,
3. 1st Lieutenant R. W. Mayo, F. A.

The other competitors were:

2nd Lieutenant H. G. Wilde, Infantry,
1st Lieutenant A. S. Newman, Infantry,
2nd Lieutenant T. J. Sands, F. A.,
2nd Lieutenant D. F. Meyer, A. C.,
2nd Lieutenant J. A. Berry, F. A.,
2nd Lieutenant F. R. Weber, Infantry,
C. B. Smith,
E. M. Rick,
F. H. Merrick.

It is idle to attempt any prophecy as to the possibility of American success in this event. Since its inception in their native Stockholm, the Swedes have always carried off first honors. In all Olympiads, except the last at Amsterdam, the United States has placed one or more men in the first ten. It is already apparent that the American representatives at Los Angeles will be, individually and collectively, the best yet to represent us in this sport.

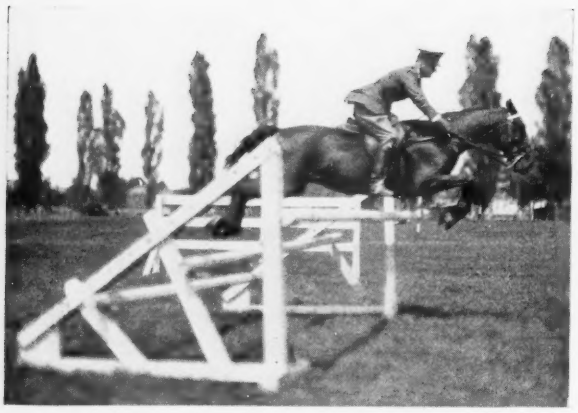
Horse Show Team of the 1st Squadron, 3rd Cav., at New Haven Horse Show

A Horse Show Team representing the First Squadron, Third Cavalry, Fort Ethan Allen, Vermont, Colonel Charles Burnett, Commanding, consisting of three officers, four enlisted men, and thirteen horses, (one officer's private mount and twelve government mounts) participated in the eighth annual New Haven Horse Show at New Haven, Conn. on May 5th, 6th and 7th.

This team showed in the following type classes: Three Gaited Saddle Horse, Hunter, Jumper, and Military. It entered fifteen events and placed in thirteen for a total of twenty-five places; winning seven first, seven second, seven third and four fourth places.

It is interesting to note that this team competed not only against horses owned by Reserve Officers and National Guard Officers in the military events, but in the jumping classes against some of the finest horse flesh in the east, many of which have won honors in

Lieut. Carl. W. A. Raguse During a Training Session at Fort Rosecrans, San Diego, Calif.



"High Ball", Captain Randolph Russell Up, Winner in Officers' Jumping.

the metropolitan shows. Entries included the famous horse *Cinello*, Champion open jumper at the Madison Square Garden last fall, and winner of the open jumping at the West Point Horse Show this June (this horse was purchased and imported from Italy by Mr. A. Untermeyer); *Golden Eagle*, heavy weight hunter champion and undefeated in his class; Tipperary stables entries to include *Easy Money*, a practically unbeaten touch and out jumper; *High Compression*, a horse owned by Col. W. H. Welch, which has jumped six feet in open competition; jumpers from the famous jumping stables of Mr. Hugh Bancroft of Cohasset, Mass.; winners of the recent Newark Horse Show; *Upperland*, the well known hunter from the stables of Mrs. Harry Frank, Jr.; and hunters and jumpers from the Absorbine stables of Longmeadow, Mass. A total of some ninety exhibitors and two hundred and fifty horses competed in seventy events. In spite of such competition Captain Randolph Russell on the government mount *High Time* won the Scurry, open to all hunters and jumpers; and the open jumping was won by Corporal Wood on the government mount *Come On*.

Among some of the places won by the Squadron Horse Show team, the following caused considerable favorable comment: in the Novice Jumping horses from the Squadron took first, third and fourth place; in the Jumper Open to All, Corporal Wood took first place on the government mount *Come On* (there were forty-eight entries in this class); in the Officers Jumping, Captain Randolph Russell took first and second places on the government mounts *High Ball* and *High Time*; Lieut. R. J. Merrick on his private mount *Ashville* received the red ribbon in the Novice Saddle Horse and the yellow in the Saddle Horse 15.2 and over; in the touch and out sweepstakes, Sergeant Nickerson took third place on *Alligator;* in the Officer's Chargers the Squadron placed first, second and third, Captain Apgar winning the blue on *Lady*; the Scurry Open to All Hunters and Jumpers Captain Randolph Russell took first place on *High Time*; and in the enlisted Men's Jumping the Squadron captured all four places, six of our horses scoring 100%.

The animals were taken by freight. They were on the car twenty hours each way and returned to Fort Ethan Allen in excellent condition. They were placed in the car head and tail with hind shoes removed.

The Commanding Officer Connecticut Cavalry National Guard Regiment, Colonel W. H. Welch, provided excellent stabling for our animals and quarters for the enlisted men.

Mr. Phelps Montgomery, a Major in the Reserve Corps, acted as host to the three officers.

Everything possible was done by the New Haven Horse Show Committee to make the trip a pleasant and successful one.

The following is a summary of places won by the Squadron Horse Show Team.

CLASS	*HORSE*	*RIDER*	*PLACE*	*PRIZE*
Novice Saddle Horse	*Ashville*	Lt. Merrick	Second	Ribbon
Saddle Horse 15.2 & Over	*Ashville*	Lt. Merrick	Third	Ribbon
Saddle Pair	*Ashville & Joe*	Cpl. Wood & Partner	Third	Ribbon
Officers Chargers	*Lady*	Capt. Apgar	First	Cup & Bridle
	Ashville	Lt. Merrick	Second	Ribbon
	High Ball	Capt. Russell	Third	Ribbon
Best Turned Out—Enlisted Man's Horse	*Come On*	Cpl. Wood	First	Cup & $20.00
	Joe	Sgt. Nickerson	Second	$10.00
Officers Jumping	*High Ball*	Capt. Russell	First	Bridle
	High Time	Capt. Russell	Second	Ribbon
Enlisted Man's Jumping	*Alligator*	Sgt. Nickerson	First	$20.00
	Buck	Pvt. Plantier	Second	$10.00
	Peanuts	Pvt. Plantier	Third	$5.00
	Jim	Sgt. Nickerson	Fourth	Ribbon
Novice Jumpers	*Come On*	Cpl. Wood	First	$50.00
	Peanuts	Pvt. Plantier	Third	$10.00
	High Time	Capt. Russell	Fourth	Ribbon
Jumper Open to All	*Come On*	Cpl. Wood	First	$50.00
Pair of Hunters or Jumpers	*Ashville*	Lt. Merrick	Second	$20.00
	Peanuts	Pvt. Plantier		
	High Ball	Capt. Russell	Fourth	Ribbon
	High Time	Capt. Apgar		
The Scurry, Hunter or Jumper	*High Time*	Capt. Russell	First	$50.00
	Come On	Cpl. Wood	Fourth	Ribbon
Touch & Out Sweepstakes	*Alligator*	Sgt. Nickerson	Third	$54.00
Hunt Team	*Buck*	Pvt. Plantier	Sec.	Ribbon
	High Ball	Sgt. Nickerson		
	Come On	Cpl. Wood		
	High Time	Capt. Russell	Third	Ribbon
	Lady	Capt. Apgar		
	Ashville	Lt. Merrick		

"Come On", Corporal Wood Up, Winner of Blue in Novice Jumpers, Jumper Open to All, and Best Turned Out Enlisted Man's Mount.

Organization Activities

The First Dragoons The Black Hawk Regiment

Fort D. A. Russell, Texas

MARCH 3, 1932 was the 99th birthday of the First United States Cavalry. The Regimental Commander designated March 5, 1932, as the date for the celebration of this august occasion when a review, field games, horse show, and a reception were held.

The First Cavalry adopted its title, the Black Hawk Regiment, from its first engagement with the Black Hawk Indians in 1833. Since its organization, it has participated in 60 battles in the Indian, Mexican, Civil, and Spanish Wars, and the Philippine Insurrection. It is the oldest regiment of Cavalry in the Army of the United States.

The First Cavalry Horseshow and Polo Team participated in the Brackettville—,Fort Clark Horseshow and Polo Tournament at Fort Clark, Texas from April 13th to 17th, 1932. The team was very successful in its venture and returned enthusiastic over the sportsmanship and hospitality of the gallant Fifth Cavalry.

On April 16, 1932, the postponed exercises for Army Day were held. Eighteen events with some seventy-five prizes were awarded to members of the regiment. Field events, races, squad drills, competitions, and clowns supplied a well-filled morning program.

Early in March the Regimental Commander instituted a nail picking contest for the children of the garrison. Surprising and gratifying results have been obtained thus far exceeding the efficiency of the magnetic nail picker. One youngster has turned in to date over 430 lbs. of nails, about eight times her own weight. The contest closes June 30th and at present competition is keen. Appropriate prizes will be awarded to all who have entered the contest.

On April 18th the 2nd Squadron and Machine Gun Troop with 2nd Pack Train attached left on a ten day practice march, negotiating the difficult passes of Pinto Canyon and Brite's Rimrock. Reconnaissance and marches were made from Candelaria down the Rio Grande to Presidio and return to Fort Russell, via Casa Piedra and Alamito. While at Presidio the 2nd Squadron and attached units held a review for General Escobar Steger, Commandante of the Garrison at Ojinaga, Mexico.

On April 30, 1932, the 1st Squadron held a review for the retirement of Master Sergeant William D. Murphy and the award of the Soldier's Medal to Private John T. Wanat, Finance Department.

On May 5, 1932, a Regimental Review was held for Major Sir Charles Mander, international representative for Rotary International. Sir Charles was made a member of the Order of the Black Hawks by appropriate ceremony following the review. Sir Charles is an enthusiatic horseman and cavalryman, having served with conspicuous gallantry under General Viscount Allenby in Arabia.

In response to the impressive and eloquent speech of Major Lacey, conferring upon Sir Charles Mander, the distinguished honor of being a Knight of the Black Hawks, he said in part, "I have served in the cavalry as a trooper in the ranks and as a leader and as a Squadron Commander in Arabia under the illustrious Cavalry Leader, Viscount Allenby.

"I never thought it would be my honor and pleasure to receive a review from a Regiment of Cavalry and particularly a Regiment so rich in tradition and loyal battle services as this famous organization which has so signally honored me. With utmost candor, permit me to say that I have never witnessed a better exhibition of horsemanship, soldierly bearing and the characteristic dash which is so typical of good cavalry in all countries and at all times."

On Friday, May 6th, the 1st Squadron and attached troops left station for a practice march to Lajitas, Texas, and return. On this march the Squadron conquered successfully the difficult passes of Fresno Canyon and the dry arid reaches in the vicinity of San Jacinto Peak.

On May 27th and 28th, the garrison will be inspected by General Short, commanding the First Cavalry Division, after which time the annual target season begins.

1st Cavalry Division

Fort Bliss, Texas

TROOPS of the 1st Cavalry Division, under the command of Brigadier General Walter C. Short, took the field, May 9, 1932, to maneuver in the area between the Rio Grande Valley on the west and the Hueco Mountains on the east, and the line Alamogordo-Las Cruces on the north and the International Boundary on the south. This area, about 40 miles in width by 45 miles in length, is part of the country over which "Billy the Kid", the famous outlaw, held sway many years ago.

The following troops participated:

Headquarters, 1st Cavalry Division
Special Troops, 1st Cavalry Division
2nd Cavalry Brigade (Brigade Headquarters Troop and 7th and 8th Cavalry Regiments)
1st Battalion, 82nd Field Artillery
Troop A, 1st Armored Car Squadron
1st Medical Squadron
1st Cavalry Division Quartermaster Train
Detachment of airplanes from the 12th Observation Squadron and 3rd Attack Group of the Air Corps.

From May 9th to 15th the 7th Cavalry, reinforced, operated against the 8th Cavalry, reinforced. The period from May 16th to 21st provided for the employment of the 1st Cavalry Division, with the 1st Cavalry Brigade outlined, on a counterreconnaissance mission.

14th Cavalry (Less 1st Squadron)

First Lieut. S. C. Page, 14th Cavalry, has been working a squad of men daily for the tryouts for the Cavalry Rifle Team. These men are all making excellent progress and the competition is very keen.

Polo playing is now well under way and the teams are playing out doors. There are two beautiful polo fields on the main parade at this garrison. It is a real pleasure to be able to play on either of these fields. We are looking forward to a very successful polo season under the able leadership of Captain Glenn S. Finley, 14th Cavalry, aided by the hearty cooperation of the Post Commander, Colonel C. E. Stodter, 14th Cavalry.

On Saturday afternoon, April 30th a tournament baseball game was played between Headquarters Troop, 14th Cavalry and Troop F, 14th Cavalry resulting in a victory for Troop F, by a score of 14 to 5.

A return game between the Columbia University Four and the Post Polo Team was played at Fort Des Moines, May 6, 1932.

The line up was as follows:

Columbia University		*Fort Des Moines, Iowa*	
No. 1	Willoughby	No. 1	Capt. Earnest
No. 2	Reaves	No. 2	Lieut. Wells
No. 3	Bruner	No. 3	Capt. Finley
No. 4	Kizer	No. 4	Col. Stodter

Columbia nosed out the local team in the final chukker by a margin of one goal. Score 8 to 7.

On Sunday afternoon, May 8th a baseball game was played between Machine Gun Troop, 14th Cavalry and a picked team of the 2nd Battalion, 17th Field Artillery. Machine Gun Troop winning by a score of 9 to 1.

Mother's Day was observed at Fort Des Moines with appropriate ceremonies. Outdoor services were conducted by Chaplain C. O. Purdy.

104th Cavalry Notes

Troop A, Clearfield, Penna., won the Chief of the Militia Bureau's Indoor Rifle Team Match for the State of Pennsylvania during the past season. The Clearfield Troop was one of the pioneers in small bore practice in the Regiment, having won the 28th Division Match in 1931.

The annual meeting of the officers of the Regiment was held at the new Military Post of Troop G, Carlisle, April 9 and 10. All officers of the Regiment were present. These annual meetings have become traditional and have for some years formed the background for the formulation of policies of far-reaching importance to the efficiency and welfare of the Regiment.

The second year of the recruit elimination program was carried to a successful conclusion when on April 30th the Regiment was 58 men over-strength. The surplus consisted of personnel whose enlistments were scheduled to expire between May 1 and August 31. All organizations recruited beyond their strength in order to take care of expirations and at the same time make it unnecessary to form recruit detachments during the field training period. The excess personnel is in process of transfer to the National Guard Reserve pending the arrival of the dates for expiration of their enlistments.

Examinations are being completed by Troop Specialists throughout the Regiment at the completion of their six months' course of training under the direction of the Regimental Plans and Training Officer, Captain H. E. Thornber. Since individual attention has been given to the Troop Specialist the past two years, a notable improvement has been observed.

Regimental Headquarters has offered quarterly prizes for excellence in drill attendance, the prize taking the form of enlarged action photographs taken at the Cavalry School, Fort Riley.

The Harrisburg units of the Pennsylvania National Guard, including Headquarters Troop, Troops I and K, 104th Cavalry; Battery A, 107th Field Artillery, Headquarters Company, 55th Infantry Brigade; and several planes of the 28th Division Observation Squadron, participated in a combined maneuver at the Penn-Harris Airport on Saturday, May 21st, in the presence of over 10,000 spectators. The feature of the afternoon was plane to ground and ground to plane radio communication. The problem was worked out and carried through under the direction of 1st Lieut. C. H. Kenworthy, Regimental Signal Officer. Forces were divided equally and a sham battle was put on for the edification of the crowd, with Battery A supporting the forces defending the airport. Lieutenants Scattergood and Brenner of the 28th Division Observation Squadron did the bulk of the flying, which included reconnaissance, ground strafing, and the picking up of messages.

109th Cavalry, Tenn. N. G.

Nashville, Tennessee

On April 30th the officers of the 109th Cavalry gave Lieutenant Colonel George R. Somerville a farewell dinner at the Andrew Jackson Hotel, Nashville, Tenn. An appreciation in the following terms was presented to him:

Five Years' Indefatigable Service
for the
One Hundred and Ninth Cavalry
and
Loyal efforts in accomplishing for the regiment the following:

Staff organization and training
Designing and improving armories
Increasing Army Extension Courses 2364 per cent
Creating interesting field training programs

Specialists' schools for armory training period
Compiling texts for specialists' schools, armory training
Improved mess management with uniform menus, field training
Non-commissioned officer and specialists' schools, field training.

HENRY H. HORTON, *Governor*,
State of Tennessee
WILLIAM C. BOYD, *The Adjutant General*,
State of Tennessee
HENRY DICKINSON, *Colonel*,
Commanding 109th Cavalry.

111th Cavalry, N. M. N. G.

Santa Fe, N. M.

CAPTAIN Roy C. Woodruff, Cavalry, who, since July 15, 1929, has been on duty as Assistant Instructor of the New Mexico National Guard, will be retired on September 30th, 1932, after more than thirty-three years' service.

Upon his retirement Captain Woodruff will engage in the breeding of thoroughbred horses at the Rancho Loma Verde, Coolidge, Arizona.

303d Cavalry

New York City

A farewell dinner was given to Major Harold T. Applington, D. O. L. at the Hotel Breslin, New York City on April 23rd, on the occasion of his transfer to Fort Bliss, having completed a two year attachment to the 303rd Cavalry as Unit Instructor.

The dinner was presided over by Col. A. M. Wolff of the 303rd, with Captain Walter P. Myers acting as toastmaster. At the guests table were:

Major Harold T. Applington, D. O. L., Col. Arthur M. Wolff, C. O. 303rd Cav., Col. William M. Connell, C. of S. 61st Cav. Div., Col. Herbert M. Barry, Retired, Lt. Col. John K. Brown, D. O. L., Major Richard W. Cooksie, D. O. L., Major J. F. Coneybear, 304th Cav., Capt. J. V. McDowell, D. O. L.

There were approximately 60 members and guests present.

The 303rd Cavalry has been most fortunate in its Unit Instructors assigned to it since its inception. Col. G. H. Baird served four years in such a capacity, developing the morale of the regiment to a high degree; he was followed by Major H. T. Applington, who continued this good work.

The Officers had an opportunity to meet their new Unit Instructor, Lt. Col. John K. Brown, who is promised the same interest and cooperation as his predecessors.

305th Cavalry

Philadelphia, Pa

ON Saturday April 16th, before a mixed gallery including members of the Regiment, distinguished guests, civil and military—a picked group of sixteen officers gave an exhibition ride and drill, including jumping, to open the annual celebration of our Regimental Day. Upon conclusion of the ride the gathering moved to the banquet hall of the First Troop, Phila., City Cavalry Armory, where ladies of the Regiment served refreshments. Among the distinguished military guests present were: Major General Wm. G. Price, Jr., Commanding General, 28th Division, Penna. National Guard, Colonel George T. Bowman, Cav., U. S. A., Chief of Staff, 62nd Cavalry Division, and Colonel Clarence R. Day, F. A., U. S. A., Chief of Staff, 79th Division.

Commencing on Wednesday evening, April 20th, members of the Regiment started intensive training in preparation for a period of active duty training with the 3rd Cavalry (Regular Army) at Fort Myer, Virginia, this coming summer.

306th Cavalry

Baltimore, Md.

INSTRUCTION in equitation for the Reserve personnel in the vicinity of Baltimore has been resumed, and the interest is so great that Fort Hoyle finds it impossible to furnish sufficient mounts for all officers who desire to ride. On some recent rides, rain soaked the officers but failed to dampen their enthusiasm.

Conferences are now held weekly for those officers who have applied for duty as Instructors at the Citizens' Military Training Camp to be held at Fort Myer, in July, 1932. In spite of the fact that it is difficult to carry on this instruction by class room methods, no other method is available for officers living in Baltimore, and the interest displayed by the officers gives promise of efficient preparation for this duty.

306th Cavalry, 2nd Squadron and Machine Gun Troop

Washington, D. C.

CONFERENCES held at this headquarters during March and April have covered the subject of "Combat, Squad, Platoon, Troop and Squadron."

Extension School work has been highly satisfactory. A total of 231 subcourses have been completed to date (April 25, 1932).

This Squadron will furnish its quota of officers for duty with the C. M. T. C. Camp at Fort Myer, July 17th to 30th.

At the conference held March 17th, a petition for a charter, with which to form a local "Cavalry" chapter, was forwarded to the Reserve Officers' Association of the United States—the sentiment of this group of officers being squarely behind that worthy organization and its activities.

Captain Wm. J. Yetton, Cav. Res., has extended to the Squadron an invitation to visit his summer place on Chesapeake Bay for an outing, which invitation was accepted with enthusiasm and a committee appointed to make the necessary arrangements.

Plans are being made for a Squadron dinner with

which to appropriately close an enjoyable and successful season.

It is with pleasure that the officers of this organization welcome Second Lieutenants Michael J. Kohut, Jr., and Howard H. Ruppart, who, having received their commissions in the Cavalry Reserve, have been assigned to the Squadron.

307th Cavalry

Richmond, Virginia

THE 307th Cavalry, (one field officer and seventeen troop officers) has been designated for active duty in connection with the training of the C. M. T. C. Applications received to date exceed the authorized quota.

First Lieutenant James F. Parkinson and 2nd Lieut. William G. Morrel have been transferred to the 462nd Armored Car Squadron.

The following officers have recently been assigned to the regiment:

2nd Lieut. Byrd S. Leavell, Jr., Culpeper, Va.
2nd Lieut. William T. Saunders, Hampton, Va.
2nd Lieut. James R. Adams, Lynchburg, Va.

The following officers have been promoted to the grade of First Lieutenant, Cav. Res:

2nd Lieut. Robert E. Glendy, Fort Defiance, Va.
2nd Lieut. William W. Smith, Lynchburg, Va.

Third Squadron and Machine Gun Troop, 307th Cavalry

Norfolk, Va.

LIEUT. Colonel Sloan Doak, G-3, 62nd Cavalry Division made an inspection of Squadron Headquarters on April 6.

A special group school meeting was held on April 6 with 64 Officers and their guests attending. Captain John V. Lowe, C. W. S., gave a very interesting talk on Chemical Warfare.

The Squadron has been called on to assist in the organization of the Memorial Day Parade to be held in Norfolk on May 30. The Unit Instructor, Major David H. Blakelock, Cavalry, (D. O. L.), has been selected as Grand Marshal and he will be assisted in his duties by the officers of the squadron who reside in the City.

Four Officers of the Squadron have applied for active duty for the period July 3 to 16. The regiment will train the C. M. T. C., at Fort Myer, Va., during that period. The officers who have applied are: 1st Lieutenants, Robert B. Batte, Walter L. Renn, Jr., Southgate W. Taylor, 2nd Lieut. William T. Saunders.

Inactive duty training is progressing in a very satisfactory manner, particularly with respect to the Extension Courses. This is the most satisfactory method of instruction for this unit, due to the scattered residences of the officers. Only a small percentage of the assigned officers reside in or close to Norfolk.

308th Cavalry

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

ATTENDANCE at the riding classes at the Hunt Armory, including both the Officers' classes and the Ladies' class has held up unusually well throughout the winter.

A considerable amount of work without stirrups has given good results.

During the National Convention of the Reserve Officers' Association, the Corps Area Commander was present, and a number of the officers of the 308th Cavalry had the pleasure of meeting him.

With the coming of Spring it is expected that many officers who have been riding all winter with the class at the Armory will take advantage of the good weather to ride outdoors. There are a number of places where horses may be obtained and where one may follow excellent bridle paths and ride across country.

Applications for active duty training next summer are coming in rapidly and, by May 10th, when all applications must be sent in, it is believed that the quota for the regiment will be more than filled.

Headquarters 862nd Field Artillery (Horse)

Baltimore, Md.

THE regiment is progressing steadily toward its goal of sending to camp this summer its quota of officers with training sufficient to get the maximum instruction out of this opportunity. The regular conferences and riding classes have been well attended and interest has been sustained. It is expected that pistol firing will be resumed next month upon the completion of the splendid new Post Office Building with its range in the basement.